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ABSTRACT

The results of a June 1973 seminar and subsequent workshops on the diffusion of educational change are reported. Papers are presented in three sections. The first section, Institutional Development, introduced by Theophilis E. McKinney, Jr. and Bonnie B. Larson, contains three papers: "Integrating the Intercultural Dimensions in a New Liberal Arts College: The International Education Program at Eckerd," by Clark H. Bouwman; "Intercultural Studies at a Small State University: Ramapo College of New Jersey," by Walter T. Brown; and "Intercultural Programs at a Large State University: Michigan State," by William T. Ross. An introduction by Ann I. Schneider and Sam H. Lane to the Faculty Development section is followed by: "An International Studies Program in a Liberal Arts College: The South Asian Study Program at Davidson," by Frederick H. Gaige; "A Consortium at Work in the World: The Great Lakes Colleges Association in Yugoslavia," by Irwin Abrams; "Community Colleges and International Teacher Education at New Paltz: Regional Cooperation Within the State University of New York System," by David M. McDowell; and "Summary: Successful Contributing Factors" by Ann I. Schneider. Section III, Instructional Development, contains an introduction by Herbert H. Wood and includes these papers: Project Components for Attaining Intercultural Education Objectives," by B. Thomas Trout; "Identification and Capitalization of Resources for Intercultural Studies," by Abdel Aziz Fouad; "The Interdisciplinary Foundation of Intercultural Studies," by Paul Conner; and "Incorporating an Evaluation System: An Essential," by Sheryl Reichman. (SPG)

INTERNATIONAL/INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION IN THE FOUR-YEAR COLLEGE A HANDBOOK ON STRATEGIES FOR CHANGE

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Foreign Area Materials Center
Occasional Publication No. 22

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INTERNATIONAL/INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION IN THE FOUR-YEAR COLLEGE: A HANDBOOK ON STRATEGIES FOR CHANGE

Marvin Williamsen
and
Cynthia T. Morehouse

(Editors)

Based on the Wingspread Workshop on Strategies for Change in International/Intercultural Education, Racine, Wisconsin, June 16-18, 1976

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April 1977

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FOREWORD

America's bicentennial year has generated heightened consciousness of milestones in history. It is thus in keeping with the bicentennial spirit to observe that we are not only in the 200th year of our national independence but also within a quarter of a century of beginning another century and another millennium.

This millennial prospect has been clouded by recent worldwide crises in food and energy, which have served to underscore how closely linked have become the lives and welfare of all of the inhabitants of this small planet of ours. The sense that we may be approaching one of the great divides in human history, not only chronologically but also qualitatively, has provoked more than one effort to examine how well we are preparing future generations to cope with a rapidly changing world.

One such exercise took place in March 1974, at Wingspread, the conference center of the Johnson Foundation in Racine, Wisconsin. This conference, the culmination of a series of regional meetings and workshops on new directions for intercultural studies in the 1970s, was held under the auspices of the Council for Intercultural Studies and Programs, a national organization of regional higher education associations and state university systems. The theme of the conference was "Education for the 21st Century," and as befits a topic of such expansive scope and futuristic character, it inspired rhetoric of heroic proportions.

The conference also generated a conviction among the participants and sponsoring bodies that the time had come to move beyond rhetoric to a sober, hard-headed examination of just how institutions go about changing themselves in order to achieve the kinds of goals set forth at the conference. The result was the birth of a project to identify and analyze strategies for change in international/intercultural education, of which this publication is one of the end products.

The March 1974 Wingspread conference also accomplished another important result. Thanks in no small measure go to Professor Edwin O. Reischauer, former American Ambassador to Japan, keynote speaker at that conference, and author of Toward the 21st Century: Education for a Changing World, who argued convincingly that any attempt to reconstruct the college and university curriculum without making a simultaneous effort to change what comes before in the student's formal education would be like trying to build the second and third stories of a new house without first constructing the ground floor. The project on strategies for change

in international/intercultural education, therefore, was broadened in scope to encompass precollegiate education as well as undergraduate education, the traditional focus of the Council for Intercultural Studies and Programs. The project was also expanded in another way as CISP sought the active cooperation and involvement of a variety of educational bodies and institutions, including the Council of Chief State School Officers, Association of American Colleges, American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, and American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, along with a wide variety of organizations and institutions represented by participants in the project.

The first step in the project was to organize a series of working groups. The nucleus of each working group consisted of several individuals with direct personal experience in bringing about change in international/intercultural education in different educational settings. The character of this nucleus reflected a conviction of the organizers, which, in turn, grew out of discussions at the March 1974 Wingspread conference, that we should base any efforts to identify and analyze strategies for change in this field insofar as possible on actual experience and that we should avoid idle, abstract exercises in theorizing about educational change.

The working groups established under the project and their coordinators were:

Institutional Development

I) Statewide Approaches: Rose L. Hayden, International Education Project, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.

II) Four-Year Colleges: Theophilis E. McKinney, Jr., United Negro College Fund, New York, N.Y.

III) Two-Year Colleges: Jorge Perez Ponce, Office of International Programs, American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, Washington, D.C.

Faculty Development

IV) Two- and Four-Year Colleges: Ann I. Schneider, Division of International Education, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

V) Elementary/Secondary: Carrel M. Anderson, College of Education, The University of Alabama, University, Alabama

Instructional Development

VI) Two- and Four-Year Colleges: Herbert H. Wood, Group Ten Community Colleges for the Seventies, Washington, D.C.

VII) Elementary/Secondary: W.W. Stevens, Jr., Wichita Public Schools, Wichita, Kansas

The basic organizational pattern of the working groups was conceived by Frederick Gaige, himself a contributor of one of the case studies in this handbook and the overall project director. In addition to the coordinator, each working group included several "model builders" with actual experience in bringing about change in intercultural education in their own institution or organization and a "development specialist" who brought to the deliberations of the working group broad experience with designing and evaluating programs of educational change. Some working groups also included a "compiler" whose task was to assemble background information on past surveys, studies, sources of support, and relevant institutional experience to be certain working group members were aware of related developments within their respective fields of interest.

Each "model builder" was asked to prepare a case study of his or her experience, on the basis of a common framework and set of questions developed out of another Wingspread happening, namely, the Wingspread seminar on diffusion of educational change, which took place in June 1973. The various working groups were then brought together in June 1975 for a workshop, appropriately enough once again at Wingspread since this project grew so directly out of the March 1974 Wingspread conference on "Education for the 21st Century."

At that workshop, along with opportunity for cross-fertilization among the several working groups, each working group addressed itself to refining their case studies. The task was not an easy one, and the participants in the workshop labored hard. As might be expected, the results were varied, with some working groups achieving more than others. Working group members were asked to make further revisions in the materials which they prepared for the workshop immediately after conclusion of the workshop, and these manuscripts then became the basis for a series of handbooks, surveys, and other reports, of which this publication is one. The entire series is listed on page iii.

This title in the series represents the combined efforts of three working groups -- those dealing with institutional, faculty, and instructional development in undergraduate institutions (Nos. II, IV, and VI as listed on page viii and above). The contributors are listed

on page xii. Taken collectively, they reflect a substantial and varied range of experience and have been among the pioneers in strengthening and integrating intercultural studies and experience in undergraduate education.

To Marvin Williamsen fell the unenviable task of preparing this varied fare in a preliminary way for publication. The exigencies of trying to complete the final editing, undertaken by Cynthia T. Morehouse, and publishing the manuscript as quickly as possible because of the considerable time elapsed since the workshop meant that some additional editorial changes were made in the final editing process, for which he should not be held accountable since there was no opportunity to check the changes with him.

As would be expected in an undertaking involving so many different organizations and individuals, many have contributed to the end product which is contained in the Wingspread Handbook Series on Strategies for Change in International/Intercultural Education. First and foremost are the members of the various working groups who participated in the Wingspread workshop. Without their willingness to share their experience in bringing about educational change, the whole project as it was originally conceived would have been impossible and we would have been soon reduced to generating the same kind of abstract, theoretical material which has characterized so much of the literature on international/intercultural education.

Many also helped to carry the financial burdens of this undertaking. The participants contributed generously of their professional time, and in some cases their institutions provided travel and other support. The Association of American Colleges, Council of Chief State School Officers Committee on International Education, and William Breese all gave significant financial help.

Critical to the entire undertaking was the role played by the Johnson Foundation and its staff. The hospitality at Wingspread and the superb conference arrangements have achieved a reputation which they richly deserve. Not only did the Foundation provide facilities but also critical financial support, augmented at the eleventh hour in order to assure successful conduct of the workshop. But perhaps the most important of all was the professional counsel and advice provided by Henry Halsted, Vice President of the Johnson Foundation and himself a former officer of the Council for Intercultural Studies and Programs in another organizational incarnation.

Finally, I should like to pay tribute to my two collaborators who served with me as the project planning and steering committee, with responsibility for organizing the working groups, conducting the workshop,

and following through on efforts to bring the labors of the working groups to the light of published day. Marvin Williamsen of Appalachian State University (representing the Southern Atlantic States Association of Asian and African Studies) served as project coordinator, and Frederick Gaige, Vice President for Professional Development of the Kansas City Regional Council for Higher Education, as project director. The three of us have functioned since the Wingspread workshop as an editorial committee for the series of handbooks and other publications growing out of the project.

Ward Morehouse
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New York
September 1976

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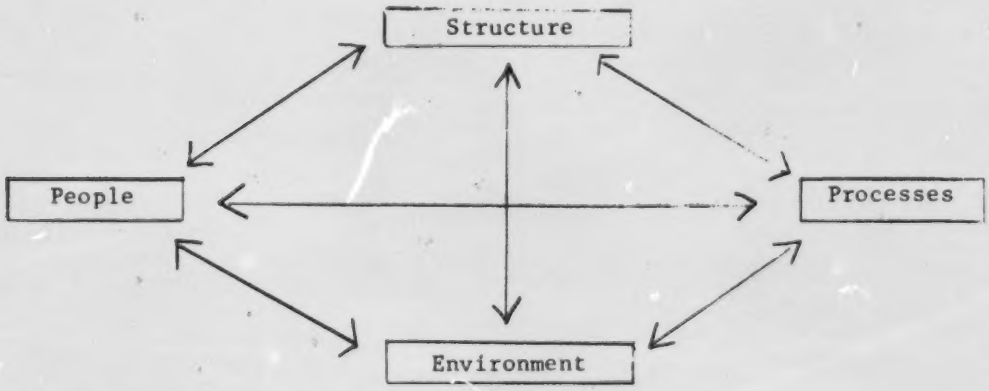
I. INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

Theophilis E. McKinney, Jr. and Bonnie B. Larson

Characteristics and Principles of Organizational Development or Institutional Renewal

Institutional or organizational development refers to a systematic and systemswide approach to institutional change. Sometimes referred to as institutional renewal, it is a process that uses behavioral science principles and techniques to analyze a total system (college or university), including all component parts and their interrelationship with one another. The parts of any system or organization can be described in terms of four categories: people, structure, processes, and environment. Organizational development theory states that all four of these component parts must be functioning in harmony for an organization to be considered "healthy." The interrelationship between these four parts can be depicted as follows:



The implications of this interrelationship are particularly important to consider when introducing an intercultural program on campus. Any change in a system will affect all four parts, and the success or failure of the change

effort is dependent on how thoroughly each part is analyzed and how carefully changes in any of the four parts are planned and problems resulting from the changes are solved. On many occasions, intercultural programs consider only the changes necessary in the "people" category and ignore important structural and process changes which link the program to or keep it separated from the rest of the institution's objectives, processes, and academic life. Or many intercultural programs are introduced on campus without proper consideration of the environmental factors such as the history of change efforts, the financial climate, and the current enrollment which may render it unsuccessful.

The process of organizational or institutional development can help the implementor of an intercultural program gather the necessary information about the "system," plan and implement appropriate change strategies, and evaluate the efforts of the change. Organizational development is a continuous process of:

1. Diagnostic Activities. Fact-finding activities designed to ascertain the state of the system, the status of a problem, the "way things are." Available methods range from projective devices such as "build a collage that represents for you your place in this organization" to more traditional data collection methods of interviews, questionnaires, surveys, and meetings.

2. Interventions. Planning appropriate process solutions to problems and change strategies based on the data from the diagnostic activities. Some major types of interventions described by E.H. Shein in Process Consultation[1] that seem applicable to intercultural programs are the following:

a) Team-building Activities. Activities designed to enhance the effective operation of system teams. They may relate to task issues, such as the way things are done, the needed skills to accomplish tasks, the resource allocations necessary for task accomplishment; or they may relate to the nature and quality of the relationship between the team members or between members and the leader.

b) Intergroup Activities. Activities designed to improve effectiveness of interdependent groups. They focus on joint activities and the output of the groups considered as a single system rather than as two subsystems.

c) Process Consultation Activities. Activities on the part of the consultant "which help the client to perceive, understand, and act upon process events which occur in the client's environment." These activities perhaps more accurately describe an approach -- a consulting mode in which the client is given insight into the human processes in organizations and taught skills in diagnosing and managing them. Primary emphasis is on processes such as

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[1] E.H. Shein, Process Consultation: Its Role in International Development, London: Addison-Wesley Publishers, 1969.

communications, leader and member roles in groups, problem solving and decision making, group norms and group growth, leadership and authority, and intergroup cooperation and competition. Emphasis is also placed upon learning how to diagnose and develop the necessary skills to be effective in dealing with these processes.

d) Planning and Goal Setting. Activities that include theory and experience in planning and goal setting, utilizing problem-solving models, planning paradigms, ideal organization vs. real organization "discrepancy" models, and the like. The goal of all of them is to improve these skills at the levels of the individual, group, and total organization.

e) Coaching and Counseling Activities. Activities that entail the consultant or other organization members working with individuals to help them (1) define learning goals, (2) learn how others see their behavior, (3) learn new modes of behavior to see if these help them to achieve their goals better. A central feature of this activity is the nonevaluative feedback given by others to an individual. A second feature is the joint exploration of alternative behaviors.

f) Education and Training Activities. Activities designed to improve skills, abilities, and knowledge of individuals. The activities may be directed toward technical skills required for effective task performance or may be directed toward improving interpersonal competence. The activities may be directed toward leadership issues, responsibilities and functions of group members, decision making, problem solving, goal setting and planning, etc.

3. Action Planning. Implementing in a systematic and collaborative manner the appropriate process strategies. This includes a statement of the desired objective or outcome, a listing of strategies or interventions designed to accomplish the objective, designation of the persons responsible for implementing strategies, dates for starting and stopping and means of evaluating or measuring outcome.

4. Evaluation. Systematically and continuously evaluating the effects of the change strategies. This step leads directly back to data collection and diagnostic activities and the four-step process begins again.

Guidelines and Strategies for Institutional Development in Intercultural Studies

Guidelines for organizational development or institutional renewal in intercultural studies include the shaping of strategies and the design of structures for:

1) Building upon and emphasizing the existing strengths of the institution.

2) Development of programs consistent with institutional objectives.

3) Assessment of all institutional resources in relation to objectives.

4) Exploring and developing opportunities for interinstitutional cooperation in the United States and abroad.

5) Establishing a clear institutional commitment and responsibility for intercultural studies expressed in terms of budget and involvement of top leadership on campus.

6) Knowing at all times what is needed for program development in order to escape the pitfall of launching programs without sufficient support.

7) Establishing an individual head for intercultural programs.

8) Building into programs arrangements for periodic and systematic evaluation by students, faculty, administrators, and by an outside evaluation team of experts.

9) Setting priorities based on intercultural values and institutional objectives.

10) Identification of student constituencies for support of intercultural programs.

11) Building structural and procedural safeguards for preserving integrity of overseas programs in intercultural studies.

Some of the strategies which have proven useful and valuable in assuring systematic and orderly development of intercultural programs include:

1) Deliberate, planned efforts to secure widespread institutional support for programs among colleagues on the faculty, within the administration, and among other key constituencies.

2) Careful assessment of student enrollment, interest in intercultural studies, and their cost implications.

3) Judicious personnel selection and utilization.

4) Recruitment of students by relating intercultural programs to their career goals, objectives, and opportunities.

5) The launching of effective "outreach" programs.

6) The establishment of intercultural studies as a requirement for graduation.

7) The design of intercultural studies programs to meet specific career and vocational requirements.

8) Screening, selection, and orientation of students.

The case studies which follow indicate how these guidelines and strategies have been applied in real situations to bring about institutional change.

INTEGRATING THE INTERCULTURAL DIMENSION IN A NEW LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE: THE INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAM AT ECKERD

Clark H. Bouwman

Eckerd College did not really go through a process of changing established patterns in order to introduce intercultural opportunities. As a new institution, founded as Florida Presbyterian College in 1958, it anticipated such an emphasis from its start. Our college was born in a relatively affluent, postwar period when higher education generally was looking for overseas study options beyond the traditional year abroad. Second, we had a fresh, new faculty committed to a world view, a kind of Peace Corps philosophy, and the obligation to formulate practical means of expressing far-reaching and innovative institutional goals. In short, in our case, it was not so much how did we change? Rather, it was how did we create?

In a general way, the Eckerd circumstances will be described according to the specified organizational development categories. However, it must be kept in mind that neat theoretical distinctions do not lend themselves perfectly to actual experience. In fact, people and processes are intermixed with a variety of general (environmental) factors and, more often than not, structural elements are superimposed after the fact, and perhaps rather haphazardly, instead of being the product of rational design.

The intercultural programs at Eckerd are first of all the products of people. The key factor for introducing change was a charged-up faculty imbued with incentive to help create a distinctive new college. Various individuals played significant roles. Language courses were taught with a conversational stress, and intercultural experience in a foreign, living laboratory was an obvious tool to employ. Language faculty were intimately involved in the college's first ventures in Mexico, Germany, and Haiti, in that order. A sociologist with comparative-culture interests helped develop the first project outside the country.

While specific individuals, especially in the language arts, contributed in important ways, the faculty as a body was also involved. Many factors interacted in producing an atmosphere, an institutional disposition, which facilitated intercultural opportunity in the curricular offerings. In the college's first year, for example, it received a request from the armed forces to set up ROTC units on campus. After discussion, the faculty reached a decision not to identify in any way with the military, but instead to set up programs which could facilitate and be consistent with values and perspectives which were later embodied in the Peace Corps. The consequences of this single decision have had a continuing and cumulative effect.

The first specifically intercultural programs developed through the personal efforts of individual faculty. These teachers were willing to undertake the extra work of organizing programs, making arrangements for travel, accomodations, meals, lecturers, transfers, cultural activities, as well as providing the precautions for various contingencies. It should be understood that from the outset, college policy required that financial arrangements be made through the college business office, subject to annual audit.

After two years of experimenting with independent arrangements, it was decided to leave academic program responsibilities in the hands of teaching faculty and to create an Office of International Education to be responsible for all other planning. The academic vice-president was the key person in arriving at this solution.

In the earlier ventures, a variety of styles of administration forced the decision. Some projects were characterized by successful organization, smooth logistics, and revenue in excess of expenditures. Others were marked by emergencies for lack of plans, over-spending (or under-budgeting), inadequate screening of students, lack of records of expenditures, and failure to use economic transportation, etc. This dichotomy was not as clear-cut in practice as it appears here on paper. No faculty person did altogether poor work, nor was anyone wholly successful.

But the role of persons cannot really be separated from the sequence of events which make up the process. It was clear that no systematically developed program, administered according to just one set of acceptable standards would evolve unless a single office with overall responsibility was established. The decision was difficult to make because each faculty leader had a strong proprietary feeling about his own program.

Individual entrepreneurship is undoubtedly a significant factor in motivating change. But if a program is to grow to represent the college as a whole -- i.e., the divisions and disciplines, the faculty, and the students -- at some point it has to become institutionalized. When the Office of International Education was established, major responsibility for development was assumed by the appointed director. In his perception, four "change agents" were particularly significant in the period which followed:

1) The faculty itself had to approve a basic statement of policy which has since remained the guiding framework within which development of new programs and adjustments in the existing options have taken place. Policy statements such as these are not empty rhetoric. This particular document continues today to serve as a guide in accepting new programs and modifying existing ones. The first draft was prepared by the newly appointed director; it was modified by the International Education Committee and referred to the Academic Policy Committee where it underwent further changes before being recommended to the faculty as a whole. It should be noted that there was student representation on each of these committees. The faculty finally accepted the statement after considerable discussion

and further revision. Not only the final draft, but the viewpoints expressed in its due process were influential factors.

2) The role of the dean also requires citation. His contacts with foundations led to grants which enabled early program development. Frequent discussions with the new director helped the program grow into a coordinated whole, not simply a hodge-podge of co-existing entities. Further, his ideas were crucial in the dynamics of development.

3) Participating faculty have also had a vital role. Exciting ideas for distinctive academic programs have forced new approaches to the organization of support. Faculty contributions in the post-program evaluations have led to further functional policy, not stated in the basic document. For example, after observing a travel-study project we were peripherally involved in (not our own) which could have served as the basis for the film "It's Tuesday So This Must Be Belgium," we decided that all Eckerd programs would establish roots in particular settings. Participants need to build a familiarity with and appreciation for a specific foreign environment. Further, continuous travel, although satisfactory for sightseeing, is not consistent with any meaningful academic work.

4) Students, too, contributed to evaluation and, as a consequence, had a role in change. Again, to cite a specific example, student evaluations showed us that in intensive programs -- January term or the seven-week summer module -- the demands of the program and the needs of the students were such that a faculty couple could not provide adequate group leadership if they were further burdened with their accompanying young children. Students' input also helps guide the selection of faculty for programs in other cultures. Not every professor's attitudes or interests are right to lead an international studies program, and students do not hesitate to confirm this.

Perhaps the process can be best perceived through an identification of key events listed chronologically:

1) Establishment of Winter-Term Calendar.

2) Emphasis on independent study.

3) Decision to provide international experience opportunities for students as inexpensively as possible.

4) Receipt of a $25,000 grant, the first of two, no strings attached, for International Education.

5) The assignment of a specific person to be Director of International Education.

6) The requirement by the college that programs be self-supporting until enrollments could justify budget support.

7) Adoption of the Semester Abroad concept by the faculty.

8) Establishment of a supportive faculty-student Committee on International Education, a subcommittee of the important Academic Affairs Committee.

9) College approval of an agency account system whereby money generated in programs did not revert to the general budget of the college.

10) Organizing programs as community experiences, which resulted in a significant postexperience impact on students generally.

11) The college requirement that all students have third-year-level competence in a foreign language.

12) The area-study requirement which was adopted when the language requirement was dropped.

13) Establishment of cooperative relationships with other colleges:
   a) Summer Institutes Abroad
   b) 4-1-4 Conference
   c) Cooperating College Consortium

14) Obtaining a lease on a long-term basis for a Georgian house on Gower Street in London.

15) Locating an excellent London staff on a continuing basis.
   a) Residence Manager
   b) Adjunct Faculty

16) European and British inflation has introduced problems not yet adequately dealt with.

Organizational elements of structure influenced the formation and format of the nascent program. Such key considerations have always been discussed with the appropriate administrators, the International Education Committee, and Academic Affairs Committee. Each semester the International Education Office makes a report to the faculty as a whole, in writing, with time available for discussion.

The original "specification" for Eckerd College (then Florida Presbyterian College) did not include a blueprint for intercultural studies as such. It did establish a third-year-level competency requirement in foreign languages for all graduates. The four-year, required Core Curriculum included a component in non-Western civilization. In addition, F.P.C. had the new 4-1-4 calendar with the then unique January term, only one subject for one month. Also, the basic understanding was that January term could not be used to offer regular courses, and the emphasis was on individualized effort from students in January

projects. This calendar made readily possible the adoption and implementation of off-campus and overseas projects, and curricular expectations which insisted on different academic work during the January term.

Perhaps it was relatively easy to establish new patterns in January because they could be tried without direct and immediate effect upon the more traditional semester offerings. New techniques, new time frames, realignment of teacher/learner roles, and introduction of subjects of study which defied ordinary discipline categories -- all were introduced fairly easily because of the general assumption that these were relatively confined and, therefore, uncomplicated developments. Only later did the impact of these January projects become evident in the semester, revealing the configurational complexity and interdependence of the full curriculum.

Following experience with initial programs and growing recognition of their educational value, the faculty adopted a formal document as a college position paper on international education. Many of the points covered constitute goals rather than accomplishments, so the statement serves as a guide, a directing influence that is part of the structure at Eckerd. Some of the more important items from that statement are revealing about the Eckerd emphases:

> Eckerd College is thoroughly committed to the proposition that international education is a necessary and vital part of its curriculum.
>
> Overseas study opportunities should be available in the major cultural areas of the world and compatible with a wide range of academic interests and professional expectations.
>
> Recognizing the rapid growth of international programs and the difficulties inherent in many of these, Eckerd College undertakes to:
>
> 1) Build programs which complement the integrity of its four-year program leading to graduation.
> 2) Provide arrangements which will distribute enrolled students in such a manner that no concentration in any given year produces a lack of balance in the campus involvement of students across the four-year period.
> 3) Make available some form of overseas study experience within the economic framework of regular tuitional payments so that each enrollee's financial aid package can be preserved.
> 4) Avoid commercial and touristic implications.
> 5) Arrange experiences overseas which involve students meaningfully in a way of life other than their own, i.e., create an overseas environment with courses designed to take maximum advantage of the host culture, not placing students in large American colonies at overseas universities, and avoiding other patterns which tend to insulate students from that which they

seek to understand.

The college should develop programs which are consistent with its general philosophy and established practices, including continuing evaluation and innovation.

The college should establish overseas study opportunities designed to help achieve solutions to other college community concerns, such as language requirements, availability of campus housing, the maintenance of high motivation and intellectual excitement, and the increase of student responsibility in education and in social life.

"Environmental" considerations here refer to developments from outside the college which have nevertheless had a direct bearing on the intercultural program. For example, as a "change agent," by far the most important contributor is a foundation which has given $5,000 annually for the past 10 years. This money has been used as seed money each year to experiment with new program techniques.

Second, the presence of the 4-1-4 Conference, now the Association for Innovation in Higher Education, on the Eckerd College campus has also been an important consideration. We have used the Cooperative Listing to be sure that our January-term program prices are competitive. Also, through our close connections with the Association, we have been able to keep abreast of developments in international education.

Finally, we would be remiss not to recognize here the continuing assistance of the Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE). Information and contacts from their annual membership fall meeting have brought new and money-saving ideas. Also, we are indebted to CIEE for the excellent evaluation team they provided to examine critically our London Semester Abroad.

Most of the successful features of the Eckerd College program are evident in the preceding units of this report. In conclusion, it is necessary to discuss the most important weaknesses and failures in our efforts:

1) The effort to bring all cross-cultural or international aspects of the college curriculum into some form of mutually reinforcing synthesis has not worked. First, there has not been time to devote to this end. The director has been too involved in the operation of expanding programs. Not all collegia at Eckerd place high value on intercultural opportunity. Ways must be found to make program opportunities that are exciting and useful to all the collegia.

2) International education should be closely related to the comparative cultures collegium because of common interests. However, there is division of responsibility and authority that tends to prevent a good, functional sharing in intercultural activities.

3) The anticipated growth and development of international education

has been seriously curtailed by the failure of the college to increase its enrollment. The Semester Abroad concept was expected to expand in various geographical areas, absorbing an ever-increasing number of students. In 1970, when the concept was adopted, enrollment was at 1150 students and we have campus space for only about 950 students. The international and off-campus programs were intended to locate students in academic programs which did not require campus housing. But after 1970, enrollment began to decline, dropping to 900 in 1974-75. In the meantime, programs in Florence, Coventry, Barcelona, and a second program in London in the arts were started. Thus, we are over-extended at the very moment that inflation is hurting every international education budget. Considering that every program except the original London Semester has been run without budget support from the college, this is a crucial problem and after 1975-76, unless we build up enrollments, we will have to cut back our offerings.

We hope and believe that we have passed the time of decline in enrollments and that from now on increases will enable us to grow into the programs we have prepared.

No institution can literally serve as a model for another college because obviously the complex configuration of time, persons, structure, and purposes is unique to each school. However, experiences in one school can be lessons for another. This statement is an honest effort to identify errors and problems as well as to speak to more gratifying aspects of our program. Cooperation with various schools and agencies has been a most successful means of broadening options for students, reducing costs and gaining worthwhile ideas. Eckerd College continues to be open to new ideas and partners in all areas of organizational development.

INTERCULTURAL STUDIES AT A SMALL STATE UNIVERSITY: RAMAPO COLLEGE OF NEW JERSEY

Walter T. Brown

Ramapo is a state-supported interdisciplinary college of 3200 students that has eschewed the tradition of departmentalization. The academic program centers around six constituent "schools" which apply and integrate the methods and perspectives of a group of related disciplines to a broad theme or topic. Although each school has developed its own character, program, and objectives, they are all committed to interdisciplinary education and curricular experimentation. Decision making for each school is conducted in a unit council composed of the director and an equal number of faculty and elected students; any policy suggestions that affect the rest of the college must be approved by either the college senate or the vice president for academic affairs.

The director of each school must be equipped to work closely with the faculty and students as a facilitator of their interaction as well as to mediate between the school and college at large. Since there are no deans in the administrative governance structure at Ramapo, the director is directly responsible to the vice-president for maintaining personnel policies (promotion, tenure, reappointment) and preparing the school's annual budget for state approval. It is imperative that this three-year position be filled by a teacher/administrator who not only sees himself/herself as "primus inter pares," but also can evaluate faculty performance, help establish programs for the remediation of any deficiencies, and guide program development.

The primary role of the schools is educational. Three types of courses -- Tutorials, Scope and Methods, and Senior Seminars -- constitute the few college-wide requirements and represent only one-fourth of the undergraduate's credits. Whereas the tutorial program involves only citizens of the individual school, Scope and Methods and Senior Seminar courses are open to all Ramapo students. The latter invariably are team-taught, often by faculty from different schools -- bringing to a problem or set of problems the insights and perspectives of not only two disciplines, but also two interdisciplinary concepts.

From the college's very inception in 1968, the founding president sought to establish new patterns of curricular organization and thus overcome many of the prevalent criticisms of higher education. He originally envisioned three interdisciplinary schools: "Regional and Environmental Studies," "Theoretical and Applied Science," and "Humanistic Studies." The latter comprised four programs, which were assumed to be seedbeds of future schools: 1) American Studies; 2) Contemporary Arts; 3) Humanistic Studies (on a more modest scale); and most pertinent to the theme of our discussion, 4) International Studies. It was suggested that "International Studies" would:

> .....initially give attention to both Western and non-Western cultures. It is conceivable that at some point in the future those two emphases would divide into two schools. In this program a student might do an interdisciplinary or disciplinary major in Literature and Language, History, Geography, Politics, Economics, Anthropology or Religion....opportunities will be developed for student study abroad.

In September 1971, when Ramapo College held its first classes for commuting students from northern New Jersey, "International Studies" was in fact a full-fledged "school," not a "program." In addition to "Theoretical and Applied Science," the other schools were "American Studies," "Contemporary Arts," and "Human Environment." (In 1974, the latter was divided into two separate schools: "Metropolitan and Community Studies" and "Human Environment.")

Informal surveys indicate that these first students were attracted to the college because of its informality, personal emphasis, and geographical proximity. Although graduates of traditional disciplinary educational programs, they opted for a young institution with an interdisciplinary learning environment. Few, however, selected "citizenship" in the School of International Studies.

Causes for this meager support were complex. In part, it was a public relations problem, but it was also a symptom of the School's identity crisis. Certainly the first brochures distributed by the Office of Admissions had highlighted the program's language offerings in such a way as to discourage all but the few students interested in European languages. This initial student response accelerated a process of faculty self-examination that had been present from the beginning. As a result, the director and members of the Unit Council decided that the term "international" itself did not accurately represent the substance of the emerging programs.

The term "intercultural" was selected as best conveying the School's primary objective: "to liberate the contemporary college student from cultural provincialism and ethnocentrism as well as awaken his or her capacities for productive and creative citizenship in the global society of the present and future." Domestic and international ethnic experiences were to be an essential part of the program if the School was to encourage an understanding of 1) the ways in which cultures have paralleled and influenced one another in their development, and 2) the contemporary cross cultural impact on international, national, regional, and local life. In addition to providing its own student citizens with an in-depth "intercultural" experience and impetus for continued intellectual growth, the School made a special commitment to create an intercultural dimension throughout the college -- thereby enriching the interdisciplinary approach to Ramapo's educational philosophy. With the enthusiastic approval of the Board of Trustees, the School of Intercultural Studies became a reality in September 1972 and its character and objectives were clarified.

In order to foster the aims of the School, a coordinated program was designed to explore as far as possible the multifaceted intercultural dimensions of each of four world areas -- Africa, Asia, Europe, and Latin America. The

educational methodology combined variety with coherence. Even courses of a disciplinary nature are infused with the intercultural approach. Opportunities are offered for intensive area and language studies as well as broader comparative studies of history, political science, anthropology, archaeology, sociology, social psychology, literature, economics, philosophy, religion, and art. By examining past and present sources, students are encouraged to explore possible future solutions of human interaction in such phenomena as poverty, population growth, nationalism, industrial and technological expansion, changing values and beliefs. The School uses the greater metropolitan area as a living, intercultural laboratory (e.g., research is undertaken at the United Nations and museums and in ethnic areas of New York and New Jersey).

A correlation naturally exists between the School's program and objectives and the disciplinary strengths of the faculty members. Thus, when the opportunity for the first significant faculty expansion occurred in the spring of 1972, the unit's decision to continue to hire specialists in the social sciences and humanities proved crucial. Area and disciplinary lacunae were filled by competent, enthusiastic scholars, e.g., a political scientist interested in global politics, a social psychologist who had experience in cross-cultural issues of human development, an Indian anthropologist with a comparative literature background, a Belgian historian with interests in Chinese culture, and a philosopher who was also trained in religion and future studies. In addition, a scholar from Ghana joined the faculty under the auspices of a U.S. Office of Education Foreign Curriculum Consultant Grant. Not surprisingly, enrollments in anthropology, literature, and history continued to increase, while student interest in area study programs mounted significantly. Little doubt existed that the alteration of the title and the clarification of educational objectives were a success. It became apparent, however, that the study of science and technology and their impact on cultures and development were not priorities within the School.

The 1972-73 group of faculty and students formulated a five-year plan -- first to analyze existing programs, and second, to discuss structures. They decided that the student electing to receive a degree from the School of Intercultural Studies would enroll in a 40-credit major in "Intercultural Studies" but also have the option to take 30 credits in a discipline offered in the School's program. The plan highlights three elements as the major coordinates of intercultural study. First, the disciplines, conceived in both their "scope" and "methods," provide a medium of cross-cultural, intercultural, and global study a) because the various representative bodies of experience or achievement constitute parallel structures which may be examined comparatively (e.g., literature, religion, philosophy, political science), or b) because their methodologies have universal applicability (e.g., anthropology, sociology, economics). Second, periods -- or temporal divisions that mark transformations in culture -- while they are most practically defined within a single cultural area, are also susceptible to definition on a global scale. Periods of parallel stages of development in different areas might be studied comparatively while opportunity for intercultural study in "modernization" or "future" studies can also be realized. Finally, there are problems, or those areas of "problematic" study, that arise from human interaction and conflict with the environment, with institutions, or within self. While they may quite naturally

be represented as crisis issues internal to an area, they may also be extended into larger programs of comparative study such as revolution, development, migration, peace.

The plan also contains a highly flexible interdisciplinary major in intercultural studies which incorporates a variety of "concentrations." These are available in each of the four area studies, Social Development Studies, and Religious Studies. The School also accepted collegewide responsibility for comparative literature, history, and anthropology majors. In addition, it offers course work and certifies graduates in all disciplinary majors within the competency of its faculty. Increasing college enrollments and the expansion and refinement of the School's objectives necessitated additional faculty resources; and seven full-time positions were added for the 1973-74 academic year. Once again, the hiring criteria in all instances reflected the unit's desire to have colleagues with international experience who had been trained in the social sciences and/or the humanities. Thus, in spite of the unit's recognition of development, migration, and peace as "problems" which have scientific and technological aspects, a conscious decision was made to continue to strengthen the School's commitment to the social sciences and humanities. Hence, the additions for 1973-74 included a Jamaican economist specializing in international trade, an Argentinian language and literature professor, a Nigerian sociologist with an interest in comparative social systems, an historian and philologist who majored in Middle Eastern and Ancient Studies, and a Yugoslavian-born expert in German and Russian languages and literature. Adjunct faculty members specializing in oriental art and Italian language and literature were also hired. A historian/anthropologist with field experience in East and West Africa and South America was brought in as director. (The first director had specialized in Victorian literature.) An archaeologist specializing in Latin America and a political scientist who studied in the U.S.S.R. joined the full-time faculty during the current year.

During the four years of the School's existence, the disciplinary majors chosen by the students have remained constant -- comparative literature, history, and anthropology (with political science, the fourth, most popular). Approximately one-third of the "citizens" have selected the intercultural studies major -- the majority of these with a European studies concentration. Classes in regularly offered European languages -- French, Spanish, Italian, German, and Russian -- remain adequately filled. Chinese, Hebrew, and Malaysian have been taught on an independent-study basis. (It should be noted that the New Jersey Board of Higher Education does not permit Ramapo to offer a major in languages.) Nevertheless, the School encourages training in languages among its "citizens" as a means of gaining access to a foreign culture and as an essential to any serious intercultural study.

A recent consultant to the School has suggested that at least one scientifically oriented teacher should have been hired. With hindsight, it is apparent that the School decided to expand the social sciences and humanities offerings because they were attracting an ever-increasing number of "citizens." But, in fact, the absence of scientists did not appreciably dilute the School's programs. With the School of Theoretical and Applied Science and, to a lesser

extent, the School of Human Environment constantly recruiting faculty in the natural and hard sciences, Intercultural hoped to utilize some of this scientific expertise and at the same time underscore Ramapo's untapped potential for interschool cooperation. Although it admittedly took a few semesters for this to be realized, courses entitled "Science and Society," "Images of the Future," and "Science in Cultural Perspective" now appear in the schedule. Because of its emphasis on culture in its broadest aspects -- a kind of study that is largely prior or ancillary to career definition -- the program of the School will always be one which supports, deepens, and enlarges the visions of the other five schools. Its citizenry will never be as large as the other schools but this enhances its "service" function. The relatively small size -- approximately 250 participants -- fosters a sense of closeness and collegiality. Since there are 20 full-time and several part-time faculty on the staff each semester, the School has probably the lowest student-faculty ratio in the college.

A fundamental premise in this all-too-brief discussion is that several critical concepts so integral to Ramapo are still being shaped. Can students and faculty -- both products of traditional educational systems -- really be expected to adjust quickly to these concepts? The exigencies of the transition from theory to practice must not be ignored. Freshmen are currently selecting an interdisciplinary school before attending their first college courses. Are they, in fact, academically equipped for such a choice? In searching for a solution to this problem, the college has submitted a detailed grant proposal seeking a program that would examine the feasibility and structure of a "freshman school" in which students postpone selection of one of the six schools until the completion of two semesters.

Interdisciplinary education is most assuredly an art -- and in so many ways, untested. The rapid growth of Ramapo and the very nature of its innovative structure has resulted in a lack of interaction among the faculty. Intimate involvement in the governing structure as well as the demands of experimental disciplinary courses have preempted time for exploring the meaning and implementation of interdisciplinary education. Indeed, if the faculty of the School of Intercultural Studies is to "interculturalize" their colleagues and the college curriculum, a medium of intellectual exchange must be provided by the administration. This year an important step was taken. The Ramapo Faculty Colloquia was inaugurated as an experimental program of seminars conducted by and for the faculty. Approximately 50 faculty members from all the schools were granted paid released time (two credits) to participate in weekly sessions designed specifically to foster "a dialogue across disciplines -- a dialogue deemed vital to the goals of interdisciplinary education." During the first semester, three themes were explored: "Authority, Culture, and Learning"; "Common Approaches Across the Disciplines"; and "Analytical and Theoretical Concepts Transcending Disciplines." These ongoing seminars reflect many of the problems so inherent in intellectual discourse among the disciplines. It is noteworthy that initial faculty response has been overwhelmingly enthusiastic.

Intercultural learning at an interdisciplinary college in an essentially

traditional state system of higher education is replete with dilemmas and frustrations. Efforts to devise intercultural teaching modalities are encouraged by the Faculty Colloquia, but at the same time hampered by severe geographical restrictions on faculty travel to conferences and research abroad. Students desirous of preprofessional and/or vocational training express dismay at the interdisciplinary approach. So too, as each school succeeds in developing a distinct identity, the resultant solidarity threatens to become antithetical to interdisciplinary education.

Ramapo is a very young institution in a state beset with financial difficulties and a reputation for educational lethargy. In the year 2000, the college and the School of Intercultural Studies will be 30 years old -- the first School class graduated in the spring of 1975.

INTERCULTURAL PROGRAMS AT A LARGE STATE UNIVERSITY: MICHIGAN STATE

William T. Ross

The International Programs Office, with a dean responsible directly to the president, was established in 1956 to: 1) help assure effective performance by the university in its attempts to assist people in developing areas, especially in efforts tied to educational improvements, and 2) help strengthen the international and cross-cultural dimension throughout the university's academic program of teaching and research. These goals were viewed as mutually reinforcing and of equal priority.

A blue-ribbon committee on the "Role of the University of International Programs" was appointed to study the various problems involved in this large and new undertaking and to make recommendations for achieving the intercultural goals set by the university. The committee, which deliberated for about a year before making its final report, was university-wide in its composition and involved some 60 faculty and administrators who represented a broad spectrum of disciplines and interests. Thus, from the beginning, a broad base of support, advice, and involvement was sought.

Another guiding principle that was evolved early -- and which is still operative -- was that of "noncompetition" with the existing academic departments. International Programs viewed its role in the increase and diffusion of the international dimension largely as one of encouragement and support, without (insofar as this was possible) direct interference into the academic affairs of the university's traditional framework -- the colleges, schools, and departments where all faculty have their basic appointments and where academic instruction and governance take place. Thus, no college of international studies was to be created, no separate department of intercultural studies, or center or program with its own faculty or degree-granting option. Such actions, it was feared, might result in isolation from other units of the university, or be viewed as threatening to departmental programs or usurping academic perogatives. Instead, students were to be encouraged to major in a discipline, with a concentration in area studies.

Departments were to be encouraged to develop new courses, revise old ones, and to enhance faculty competence by 1) the deliberate recruitment of persons with abilities in areas of international studies; 2) "retreading," through programs of study/research, interested faculty who had little or no prior training or competence in intercultural studies; and 3) through providing means for the continued involvement of faculty in activities of an international nature.

International Programs helped create several other university-wide committees, whose members were to serve as liaison persons and to develop channels of communication with department chairmen and faculty. New positions of assistant dean for international programs were created in several of the "target" colleges, and special efforts made to involve deans and other influential persons in the activities of the university's technical assistance programs abroad. Deans were encouraged to participate in inspection trips where appropriate and, along with department chairmen and faculty, to serve as consultants/advisors on overseas projects. Special efforts were made to involve project returnees in positions that would maximize opportunities for feedback into the system of curriculum, research, and administration. Their services were sought and their influence felt throughout the institution, especially in the several international institutes, area centers, and programs developed within the past 15 to 20 years.[1] It is within this general structure and against this background, then, that intercultural studies -- both graduate and undergraduate -- have developed at this university over the last two decades.

While the major problem was to strengthen the international and intercultural dimension throughout the university's academic program of teaching and research, this paper will deal primarily with the problem of undergraduate education during the 1960s and 1970s. The three colleges whose disciplines have traditionally shown the strongest interest in international studies, and where the impact on the largest number of undergraduate students seemed most likely were Arts and Letters, Social Science, and the University College.[2] These three colleges, then, will be the subject of this discussion, with the University College the focal point of the case study.

Major factors contributing to the development of an international dimension in the curriculum include:

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[1]The Canadian-American Study Committee was established in 1956; the African Center in 1960; Asian Center in 1962; Latin American Center and International Education Institute in 1963; Russian and East European Program in 1964; and the International Institute of Agriculture in 1965.

[2]The professional schools (Business, Agriculture, Engineering, and to a lesser extent, the College of Education) already had a leg up, at least as far as faculty involvement with non-Western cultures was concerned. By the mid- or late 50s, all of these schools had participated in at least one overseas technical assistance project, and a number of their faculty had gained a background of interest in international education through their service on the foreign programs. Also, the College of Engineering, with the cooperation of the Colleges of Arts and Letters and Social Sciences, had developed a five-year program in Engineering for International Service.

1) Revision of the basic Social Science and Humanities courses within the University College.

2) Creation of the department of Linguistics and Oriental and African Languages in the College of Arts and Letters.

3) Establishment of the area study centers which cross-cut colleges and disciplines.

4) The creation of a separate department of Anthropology and a multi-disciplinary major in the College of Social Science.

5) Establishment of interdisciplinary courses dealing with world areas and problems associated with development.

6) Creation of the Overseas Study Program and International Extension Office.

7) Development of faculty/study exchange programs with overseas institutions; utilization of Fulbright, foundation, and other support for faculty study and research.

The president of MSU, during the formative years of its international program development, was a recognized leader in international affairs and an ardent supporter of international programs; his views on such matters were well known both on and off campus. There is no doubt that such views helped create a climate in which cross-cultural studies and research could be nurtured. The chief academic officers (provosts) also supported the program during that period. The dean of International Programs played a central role, of course, in this total effort. His relationships with, and access to, top administrators on campus, deans, department chairmen, and faculty; the network of communications provided by the various committee structures created for that purpose; his relationships with funding agencies, national, and international organizations have all been crucial factors in "internationalizing" the curriculum.

With this background, then, let us return to our case study of the University College. Major change agents in the College included:

1) The dean, who chaired the university-wide Seminar on International Aspects of Education in 1958, was among the first to create a position of assistant dean for International Programs; actively encouraged department chairmen to revise curriculum; made his views on non-Western materials known to faculty through memoranda, faculty meetings, etc.; appointed a committee chaired by the assistant dean for International Programs to plan course revisions; cooperated in recruiting faculty as advisors/consultants to overseas education programs; and served as a short-term consultant himself on the Nigeria Project.

2) Assistant dean for International Programs who had responsibility

for international activities in the college; coordinated efforts to develop proposals, revise curricula, stimulate research/study, etc. He had an academic appointment in the department of Social Science; had served as chief of the Pakistan Project overseas and as its campus coordinator; was a member of various Office of International Programs' committees and the director of the Asian Studies Center.

3) Chairmen of the departments of Social Science and Humanities. The Social Science chairman actively supported curriculum changes in his department; appointed a special committee (including the assistant dean for International Programs) to study the problems and make recommendations; initiated many ideas, participated in proposal preparations, etc.; and communicated often, directly, and effectively with his faculty.

   The Humanities department chairman was faced initially with many problems, including that of a department well trained in aspects of Western humanities, proud of the excellent courses they had developed over a period of two decades, and reluctant to undertake sweeping curricular changes. Later, his cooperation overcame much of the reluctance of the department to introduce non-Western materials.

4) Faculty members. Attempts were made to use respected and influential faculty not only to help "sell" the idea of non-Western materials, but to insure quality production. Faculty involvement was not a problem in the Social Science department where curricular revision was almost a "tradition" and where interest in comparative cultures was strong. The situation was different in Humanities where interest was weak and opposition strong; with few faculty willing to advocate adoption of non-Western materials, it took the "yeast" longer to work. The identification and utilization of key faculty to serve as bellwethers was more important here, and did help win some converts among the opposition.

5) Outside agents. Consultants from granting agencies, organizations concerned with education (Ford Foundation, EWA, ACE, etc.) were brought to the campus from time to time to assist in the process of change (for example, Howard Reed, Jim Becker, William Marvel, Seymour Fersh). Respected scholars from other institutions were also invited to participate in faculty seminars. Their advice on curriculum change and their impartial views of our structural problems were most helpful and appreciated.

   Conferences, seminars, and colloquia -- both on and off campus -- provided many opportunities for interested faculty and administrators to interact with others who were similarly interested, or to have their determination reinforced. Such occasions also

provided opportunities for the unconvinced and reluctant to hear arguments from those beyond the campus. The Association for General and Liberal Studies, held at Michigan State in the early 1960s had a special session devoted to non-Western studies and several subsequent annual meetings of that organization had similar programs. (A large number of the University College faculty are members of that organization; the dean has been an active supporter and the chairman of the Social Science department has held various offices of the organization, including that of president.)

6) Funds to support the development of international studies at all levels within the institution have come from internal and external sources. Although this report focuses on the undergraduate curricula, it cannot be isolated from the developments stimulated by previous grants, especially from the Ford Foundation. The general support grant of $2.5 million in July 1960 provided the "seed money" for many activities over a period of several years which contributed directly and indirectly to course developments. The most generous outside support for undergraduate education was a three-year $250,000 grant from the Ford Foundation in July 1964 (twice extended to July 1969).[3] Of considerable importance, too -- especially in the Colleges of Arts and Letters and Social Science -- were grants from the Office of Education for the support of NDEA Centers of African and Asian Studies for 12 and eight years respectively during the period covered in this paper.

Several of the key events in the development of intercultural studies have already been mentioned or alluded to, and others will be brought out in a later section on impact. Perhaps it would be helpful, however, to summarize them here and indicate their overall importance as well as specific undergraduate program development.

As indicated earlier, shortly after his appointment the dean of International Programs organized a faculty committee on the "Role of the University in International Programs." This committee made suggestions for improving the university climate and the recognition of faculty contributions. A proposal for a comprehensive review by a larger group, giving consideration to special functional and operational areas, became the next effort in this direction, supported by a grant from the Ford Foundation in December 1957. It also became possible to experiment with administrative procedures to focus and channel the personal resources of the University into new kinds of on-campus international activities.

In implementing the grant, a mixed faculty-administrative steering

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[3] To be used in: 1) the University College departments of Social Science and Humanities, 2) the Colleges of Arts and Letters and Social Science, and 3) the professional Colleges of Agriculture, Engineering, and Education.

committee was brought together to specify the high priority areas of international concern. Study seminars to discuss each area and make recommendations met during the spring and summer of 1958, with the chairmen and executive secretaries finishing reports in the summer and fall.

As these reports were completed, the steering committee was reactivated. The chairman of each of the seminars and a number of other individuals were added to this "Integrating Seminar Committee." Over a period of several months, the seminar reports were presented and discussed.

Shortly, negotiations were begun with the Ford Foundation for a general support grant which was awarded in July 1960. There followed the establishment of various committees to assist in the utilization of that grant.

Within the same year, the NDEA African Studies Center was established with funding from the Office of Education. The University College appointed an assistant dean for International Programs, which helped further efforts within that College to enhance the international dimension. During the next year a proposal was made to International Programs for funds to begin revision of curriculum in the department of Social Science (Phase I) which was to pave the way for further revision (Phase II) some two years later under a special grant from the Ford Foundation.

An increased interest in undergraduate education began to be felt, following discussions with persons from the Ford Foundation in 1962. Research and graduate education, along with a service orientation of the professional schools, had claimed much of the attention, but now the undergraduate began to emerge as an important factor in the larger picture of international studies.

In 1961-62, interested faculty formed area study groups -- the forerunners of area centers -- to discuss matters concerning Asia and Latin America. Encouraged by International Programs and provided with modest funds to bring in an occasional speaker or consultant, these groups began to think about the best ways to organize area knowledge into a coherent curricular pattern. To further those interests, proposals were made for the establishment of centers and in 1962, the Asian Studies Center was established, followed by one for Latin American studies the next year.

In 1964, two further events related to undergraduate education occurred: the approval of the Asia Center's proposal to HEW for an NDEA Center for South Asia Language and Area Studies, and the award of the $250,000 Ford grant for undergraduate education.

Assessment of the impact of changes at Michigan State has been and continues to be an ongoing process. In the summer of 1970, a survey was conducted to analyze more systematically the extent of the international content of undergraduate university curricula and in academic programs of individual students since 1950.[4] At the same time, a final, comprehensive report was made

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[4] Rose Hayden, "The International Studies Dimension at Michigan State University: A Pilot Study," Summer 1970.

to the Ford Foundation on the $250,000 grant made in 1964. Findings from both these reports support the view that overall goals have been achieved, but there are still gaps and discontinuities in the undergraduate intercultural curricula.

"Growth in the international dimension of courses at MSU has been substantial and steady," the survey indicates. Some selected statements and statistics:

> The increase from 1956 (when the Office of International Programs was established) through 1970 for international courses was 77 percent as compared with a 31 percent general increase for the university as a whole.
>
> Close to 25 percent of all courses to some degree contain comparative/area content.
>
> The number of departments offering international courses rose from 17 to 49 in the last two decades.
>
> The sharpest gains in international courses were made by non-Western courses, and comparative and/or development courses. International courses increased from 446 to 801 (or 79 percent); non-Western from 90 to 209 (132 percent).

The report to the Ford Foundation may serve as another source of evaluation of change. Some summary statements from that report follow:

I. UNIVERSITY COLLEGE

A. Social Science Department

1. Extensive revision of substantive content of required course sequence to reflect the theme, "Problems of Change and Development." Tangible results of revision included: three 400-page volumes used as texts; accompanying 200-page data source book; student manual; instructor's manual.

2. Study-travel grants, based on relationship of the study-travel to development of international content of courses taught, made to 14 faculty members. Benefits of grants include personal enrichment, published research, and new insights which influenced course content and teaching, and added resource materials in the form of bibliographies, seminar papers, books, and case studies.

3. Development and experimentation with a variety of teaching aids. Results: tape recordings of significant lectures; student-made documentaries for use on closed-circuit TV; production of single-concept 16 mm

film as pilot project.

4. Partial support was provided for Kusum Nair to develop a new course and a textbook on "Modernization: A Comparative Study of Japan and India." The course is one of three interdisciplinary courses in the department, the other two being "Modernization in the Middle East," and "Contemporary Problems and Issues of the Far East."

B. Humanities Department

1. A non-Western emphasis, represented in the curriculum by five courses taught each term throughout the year, now exists where none did before:

"Cultural Traditions of India," "Cultural Traditions of China," "Cultural Traditions of Japan," "Cultural Traditions of the Islamic World," and "Cultural Traditions of Sub-Saharan Africa."

2. Some nine study/travel grants were made to professors to further their understanding of non-Western humanities, gather teaching materials, etc.: two attended seminars and summer programs at Columbia and Ann Arbor; four attended a special summer seminar at the University of Ryukyus; one attended a CIEP program in Taiwan and Hong Kong; one spent five weeks in Japan; and another was in Hong Kong and Japan. These personal enrichment opportunities have definitely modified the preoccupation with Western humanities and contributed to curriculum diversity and have given faculty new perspectives on the Western humanities they teach.

II. COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE

The major developments growing out of the Ford grant for undergraduate curriculum were in the areas of a Multidisciplinary Program and a comparative cultures seminar.

A. The MDP Program includes as one option a General International Studies Program. Within the framework of the program, Ford Foundation funds were used to plan and implement a Foreign Area Studies Program for Teachers.

B. In 1965, a Comparative Cultures Committee was formed and continued to meet during 1965-66 to review courses involving comparative or cross-cultural content, concentrating on the problems of comparative methods. During 1966-67, attention was focused on planning a senior-level seminar on comparative cultures and a seminar offered in 1968. (Lack of funding has made it impossible to offer the seminar since then.) Major value: bringing together faculty from diverse areas with

opportunity to become familiar with their respective disciplinary perspectives and develop a common approach to basic social science issues relevant to undergraduate and graduate education.

III. COLLEGE OF ARTS AND LETTERS

A. The Ford Foundation grant for undergraduate education made possible a series of seminars in which comparative methodology and available literature were discussed. Proposals were developed for incorporating the comparative approach into new courses, or in remodeling old ones. New courses included:

1. Comparative Literature: "Impressionism in Literature," "Literary Criticism," "Comparative Fiction."

2. History: "Development of Comparative Legal Ideas," "The Industrial Revolution," "History of the Reformation," "Socialist Movements in the 19th and 20th Centuries," "European Reform and Revolution in the 19th Century."

3. Comparative Study of Religion.

4. African Literature.

B. The new courses are part of a broader movement in the College:

1. Summer-study program at three major European universities.

2. Junior-year program at University of Freiburg (jointly with three other universities).

3. Exchange-of-professors program with Universities of Sussex and Edinburg.

Overseas studies programs that cross-cut these three colleges (and indeed the total university) are administered by the Office of Overseas Study and staffed by the departments. These opportunities include programs offered in Western and Eastern Europe, Asia, and Latin America. During 1975, students with the following subject-matter interests were able to pursue course work overseas on MSU-sponsored programs:

Semester/Academic Year

European Language and Educational Centers
Junior Year in Freiburg
MSU-University of Surrey Exchange Program
Semester in Southeast Asia
Semester of Russian Language Program
Undergraduate Language Program in Rennes
Undergraduate Language Program in Seville

Spring Term

LONDON

Humanities and Social Science
Political Science

NETHERLANDS

Business Law

Summer Programs

LONDON

Art
Comparative Education
Decorative Arts and Architecture
English Literature
Humanities
Social Science
Theatre

STOCKHOLM

Social Science

MAYEN, GERMANY

German Language

LENINGRAD

Summer Russian Language Program

MEXICO CITY

CIC Summer Language Program

It would not be accurate to say that these are wholly the results of the Ford grant, but most certainly the grant did help awaken faculty to the importance of establishing an international perspective.

By whatever standards one uses to measure the success of an undertaking, MSU's attempts to internationalize its campus have yielded considerable results The changes documented in the previous pages attest to a strengthening of the curricula both in terms of new courses and the infusion of intercultural materials into already existing ones. Gaps and discontinuities still plague the curriculum. The History department, for example, after all these years, does not offer courses on South Asia, and the non-Western world is poorly represented in several other areas as well, including the arts. Nor has MSU been able to hold on to all the gains it made during the 1960s and 1970s. Loss of HEW funding for the two NDEA Centers has resulted in cutbacks and deletions in their programs, notably languages, and the present "tight money" situation has caused faculty and administrators alike to rethink curricular priorities. The proposed new Institute for Area and Comparative Studies at MSU quite possibly will have the answers to some of these problems. But in the meantime, it is comforting to know that about 25 percent of all the offerings of the university are in the international area; and when one considers that over 40,000 students enroll in this institution every year, over the two decades under discussion an international dimension of some measure has become part of the lives of literally thousands of students.

II. FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

Ann I. Schneider and Sam H. Lane

Techniques and Approaches

A discussion of specific techniques and approaches for faculty development was itself a learning experience for members of the working group dealing with the subject. Some fairly standard academic activities, and some variations on them, had not been thought of as being significantly developmental for the faculty, nor had they been considered activities which the program organizers might productively spend their time facilitating.

The group made several unsuccessful attempts to categorize the techniques under discussion. One effort involved a distinction between cognitive and affective development, which soon ran into difficulties because so many activities may, in fact, include elements of both cognitive and affective learning, depending upon both the nature of the activity and on the person experiencing it. On a more pragmatic level, we tried to distinguish between "cost" and "no-cost" techniques, but this also quickly ran aground because of obvious differences in university accounting systems and administrative expectations.

Many of the approaches suggested in the discussion were not limited to development of intercultural or international studies resources. Many techniques were generally known, but variations on them seemed quite innovative. The compilation which follows begins with techniques that are fairly traditional and moves on to those which, to some readers, may be quite novel. The data on which they are based are drawn primarily from undergraduate international studies programs funded under Title VI of the National Defense Education Act -- by no means a complete view of all the possibilities, but perhaps indicative of some approaches that might be explored further.

Among the more traditional techniques for faculty development which program organizers might use to increase international teaching resources are faculty attendance at regional or national professional meetings, overseas travel by faculty to gather teaching materials (a "broadening experience" as the sole purpose for overseas travel is <u>not</u> to be recommended), and faculty research. While some faculty research is likely to occur anyway, the program

organizer can often foster an international orientation by helping to find financial support and by urging the institution to follow a liberal leave policy. Interaction with students has long been an important part of the faculty development process; some international programs have formally incorporated student contributions by drawing explicitly on foreign students and on American students recently returned from overseas programs. Students have also been included in faculty seminars. Another traditional technique has always been the preparation of a new course or the revision of an existing course; however, there seems to be considerable variation in institutional policy about the need (and availability of resources) for released time required for this faculty activity.

Somewhat less traditional approaches might include attendance at regional or national workshops to improve teaching skills, to learn new teaching methods, or to broaden understanding of the subject.[1] Another direct method used is individual formal advanced study through the attendance of special or regular courses at another institution, or even courses at the faculty member's own institution. Overseas working assignments for faculty members have also proved beneficial; assignments specifically noted have been exchange teaching, direction of student overseas programs, and work in an applied area related to the faculty member's disciplinary training. Some institutions have been able to bring in foreign curriculum consultants (the Fulbright-Hays program administered in the Office of Education, has a special, although little-used, category of grants for this purpose) to aid faculty at one or more institutions in the organization of courses and development of instructional materials.

A relatively simple innovation undertaken by a few programs has been an inventory of faculty resources and international contacts. While this obviously serves organizational purposes, it has also served to sensitize members of the faculty to possibilities which the international program might offer them in terms of their own development. (The exercise might be undertaken by administrative personnel or as an instructive project for students.) Another faculty training innovation is the development of a "mentor" relationship -- one faculty member learning from another on a one-to-one basis. The mentor might be at the same institution or at another nearby, which in some situations may be reciprocal.

Faculty team activities are also relatively innovative for most institutions. One specific activity that frequently generates considerable momentum is the team-written proposal; it inevitably involves much substantive discussion which is not likely to cease when the task at hand is completed. Team teaching, particularly with faculty members drawn from a variety of disciplinary and area interests, has also served a significant developmental function, especially when team members attend each others' presentations. The team-teaching effort may be directed to an introductory course, an advanced course,

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[1] One very specific possibility here is the Scholar-Diplomat Seminar series run by the Bureau of Public Affairs at the U.S. Department of State.

or a workshop for inservice teachers.

As the case studies which follow will demonstrate, faculty development seminars are a frequently used approach with great variety in purpose and technique. Overseas faculty seminars have sometimes been organized for faculty at a single institution but are more likely to involve faculty from several institutions. Without leaving the United States, some faculty seminars are held on campus, while others are held away from campus distraction at a weekend retreat or conference center. Some last as long as two or three weeks, and at least one that was scheduled for two months has come to our attention -- all of these full-time. Others are scheduled periodically, meeting once a week, a month, or a semester. The purposes for the seminars bear little relation to their timing; they have included program planning, development or revision of curricula, program evaluation, sharing and discussion of research results, introduction of faculty (at the institution or at a group of institutions) to new concepts in subject matter or methodology -- or a combination of any of these. Some faculty seminars have been organized in an ad hoc fashion, to take advantage of the presence of visiting lecturers for discussion with a small number of faculty members interested in their specialties.

As mentioned before, this compilation is admittedly incomplete, but perhaps it will provide some ideas about additional approaches. None, even the most traditional, are easy to organize. The case studies which follow will give not only more detail about some approaches, but also some additional warnings about possible pitfalls and some important thoughts about the need for a supportive organizational setting for any faculty development.

Obstacles to Be Overcome

In attempting to formulate a faculty development component of an intercultural program, a conceptual as well as pragmatic difficulty emerges in trying to separate faculty development from aspects of instructional and organizational or institutional development. In recent times, the initial concern has been with a consideration of ways to enhance the effectiveness of instruction, hence the label instructional development. As the various methods for achieving this goal were examined, it became obvious that instructional development was very much related to faculty and organizational/institutional development. The probability of sustained impact was reasoned to be increased if efforts to enhance instruction took into account the needs and competencies of the individual faculty member as well as addressing how the program should relate to the institution, and what was the optimal type of organizational unit. Indeed, it seemed more accurate not to separate faculty, instructional, and organizational/institutional development, but to consider them as foci of a comprehensive plan. The orientation of the present chapter is consistent with this idea. The focus is on faculty development, but the larger context which includes the perspective and aspects of instructional and organizational/institutional development is addressed when relevant.

Efforts to initiate a faculty development program are usually frustrated because there is the expectation that the task is to review well-developed, existing models, and to copy the one that seems the most appropriate for that institution or program. It is quickly found that no well-developed models exist and, at best, the only examples are of a few programs that have not been in effect long enough to evaluate their usefulness. Guidelines for developing new programs are available (Bergquist and Phillips, 1975; and Buhl and Lane, 1975),[2] but considerable effort and time on the part of faculty and administrators is still required. Also, the time frame necessary for completing the task is found to be longer than was initially anticipated. The task is greatly complicated if the faculty perceive the effort as a thinly veiled guise for evaluation. The notion of faculty evaluation was never popular in academia in the best of times, and is esteemed even less when there is the possibility that the evaluation information will contribute to retrenchment efforts on the part of the institution in the form of dismissing faculty.

Another complication is that inadequacy is usually inferred from the notion of development, and some measure of threat, anxiety, or hostility is immediately aroused. Unfortunately, this problem is exacerbated by such phraseology as, "If we are going to develop faculty..." which implies that someone is going to do something to them. In most instances, that "someone" is usually an administrator who, almost by definition, has suspect motives. The beginning phases of a faculty development program are complex and can be difficult, but successful groundwork is mandatory for long-term viability. Experience has indicated that initial resistance and apprehension on the part of faculty are greatly reduced if the process of developing the program is (and not merely manipulated to appear so), grass roots and participatory, and facilitates faculty meeting their needs as they perceive them.

Within this general context, designing a faculty development component to be associated with a program in intercultural studies presents a special set of issues and problems. In the first place, most intercultural studies programs, such as those presented in a later section of this publication, do not have faculty development as an explicit, primary objective, nor are they explicit as to the process. Somewhat paradoxically, this type of program seems to depend a great deal on being successful at proper retraining or recruitment and the maintenance of the effort over time. These factors are especially important if a program is being initiated at a traditionally oriented institution. In this case, the faculty who are to participate in the program in all likelihood are more heterogeneous with regard to competencies and motivation than would be the case of faculty within specific academic departments.

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[2] W.H. Bergquist and S.R. Phillips, "Components of an Effective Faculty Development Program," Journal of Higher Education (Vol. 46, No. 2, pp. 177-211); and L.C. Buhl and S.H. Lane, Professional Development in Teaching: A Planning Model, Chicago: American Association for Higher Education Meeting, 1975.

Another set of special issues is related to whether the program involves a large component of foreign travel for extended periods of time or in bringing intercultural activities to the campus. In the former instance, questions regarding what happens to other activities that contribute to professional development such as research need to be resolved. The more general issue is to make some provision for whatever development activities are planned to be sufficiently credible so that the individuals' career development are not adversely affected.

In an intercultural program that spans more than one institution, special consideration has to be given not only to the coordination of faculty development efforts, but also to offsetting the loss of the advantages of proximity which obtain when only one campus is involved. Some provision must be made to reduce the possibility that far-flung faculty will become isolated, both from the program and on their own campus. All of the problems that one encounters with faculty development on one campus become exponentially increased by the addition of other campuses.

AN INTERNATIONAL STUDIES PROGRAM IN A LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE: THE SOUTH ASIAN PROGRAM AT DAVIDSON

Frederick H. Gaige

Description and Brief Evaluation of the Program

This paper is based on the author's experience in a liberal arts college noted for providing its students with an excellent preparation for graduate studies in law, medicine, and Ph.D. programs. In 1967, the faculty of this college voted, as part of a larger curriculum-change package, to develop a non-Western studies program focused on South Asia (India and Pakistan); in 1969, a director was hired to establish and develop the program. The immediate objective of the program was to provide students with an opportunity to study another world culture and thus, to gain a broader world perspective.

The program consisted of South Asia-related courses offered in the various departments and cross-listed under "South Asian Studies" in the college catalog. During the first five years of the program (1969-1974), 16 different courses were offered in seven departments by eight faculty members. These courses, some of which were offered only once or twice during that period, are listed below:

Art History of South Asia
Civilization of South Asia (ancient and medieval periods)
Civilization of South Asia (modern period)
Comparative Religions of South Asia
Economics of South Asia
Government and Politics of South Asia
Hindi
Independent Study
Indian Philosophy
International Relations of South Asia
Modern Indian History
Peoples of South Asia
Political Anthropology
Sanskrit
Social Change and Modernization in South Asia
Theistic Hindu Sects

This was an impressive course list for a small liberal arts college, and it evidenced a rich faculty-resource pool. The development of this resource pool will be discussed further on. In addition, a comprehensive and balanced collection of South Asian materials was added to the library supporting the course additions. This collection was built by a part-time librarian with experience as a South Asian bibliographer.

The program also sponsored extracurricular activities such as concerts, films, art and book displays, visiting lecturers, etc. It is impossible to measure the impact of these both on the general student population or the small town in which the college is located. However, it is clear that many

students and local citizens became increasingly aware of South Asia -- its culture and current developments -- as a result of the program.

The program had a number of additional sources of support. The president and academic vice president of the college were both committed internationalists and enthusiastic supporters of the program. The college itself is in considerably better financial condition than most private colleges, and it could afford to begin this new program in the late 1960s and continue to support the program, despite the increasing financial pressures of the 1970s.

External funding agencies represented important sources of support. During the five years under consideration, 1969-74, funds were obtained for the following projects:

Project	Funding Agency
1) Library Acquisitions[1]	Mary Reynolds Babcock Foundation
2) Sabbatical Grant for Study in India	Institute of International Education
3) Sabbatical Grant for Study in India	Fund for the Study of Great Religions
4) Faculty Seminar in India	U.S. Office of Education
5) Visiting Lecturer from India	U.S. Office of Education
6) Faculty Seminar in Pakistan	U.S. Office of Education
7) Hindi Language Institute	Jointly funded by the U.S. Office of Education and a private foundation
8) African-Asian Studies Project for college and secondary school teachers in North Carolina	Jointly funded by the National Endowment for the Humanities, Mary Reynolds Babcock Foundation, and North Carolina Department of Public Instruction

Most of the projects listed above were undertaken on behalf of a consortium of 16 colleges and universities with common Asian studies program development interests. The consortium itself was established and run for the first three years of its operation by the director of the South Asian Studies program at the college. The grants received benefited not only the institutions in the consortium but also provided momentum for the South Asian Studies program,

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[1]This grant was obtained by the college administration before the program was actually established.

made possible much of the faculty development which took place, and legitimized the program in the eyes of skeptical faculty members at the college. The Overseas Projects Section (Fulbright-Hays) and the Language and Area Studies Section (NDEA) of the U.S. Office of Education were particularly important external change agents with regard to this program.

Given all of these positive support factors, one would assume that the program must have been an unqualified success. Unfortunately, this was not entirely the case. A major stumbling block was low student enrollments in the South Asia course offerings. This is indicated by the annual faculty/student ratios in these courses: one to nine in 1970-1971; one to seven in 1971-1972; one to nine in 1972-1973; and one to seven in 1973-74. There was no South Asian Studies major and none of the course offerings were required for graduation. They were all electives, and enrollment depended upon student interest in the instructors and the subject matter.

Faculty Development

Before analyzing the problem of low enrollments, a problem which involves institutional or organizational development considerations, it would be instructive to discuss the program's successful faculty development activities. The program effectively utilized the considerable faculty expertise already on campus. Four faculty members had previous academic training in South Asian studies and all taught at least one course. Two others who had no previous training obtained sabbatical-year grants for research and lecturing in India, and both returned to offer courses. Through the U.S. Office of Education's curriculum consultant program, a guest lecturer from India was brought to campus for one semester. In addition, because of the college's secure financial position, it was able to hire the program director and one other South Asian studies specialist in order to make available additional resources.

A further important sequence of faculty development activities was the offering of a faculty seminar on South Asian culture and current events, presented by the director during the first year of the program. This was attended throughout the year by 10 to 15 faculty members. In the second year, the director applied to the U.S. Office of Education's Overseas Project Section for funds to take these faculty members to India to continue their study and to add an experiential dimension to their seminar work. Of the 11 faculty members to spend the summer in India, five added South Asian material to existing courses, most of the others provided some kind of extracurricular input upon their return, and all assisted in infusing the small college community with interest in that part of the world. The following year, three more faculty members traveled and studied in Pakistan, again with a USOE-funded group involving faculty members from the above-mentioned consortium. The result of all this activity was the rapid construction of an impressive teaching capability.

Problems of the Program

As mentioned above, the major problem was low enrollments. One might assume that good publicity and good teaching would be key factors in generating enrollment. While publicity and public relations were important responsibilities of the program, energetic performance of them, or the lack thereof, did not seem to be a significant factor in the enrollment picture. Likewise, while a number of the faculty members who taught South Asia courses had fine teaching reputations among the students, enrollments were low for the best teachers as well as for the poorer ones.

The low enrollments appear to be due primarily to the factors that the program was not effectively integrated into the college curriculum at the time the program began, and that no effective solution was found acceptable to the faculty and administration after the program was established and the enrollment problem became clear. Although the college has a strong departmental structure, and it would, therefore, be natural to consider adding the program as a new department or major, this idea was rejected. Also rejected was the idea that a South Asian Studies course be required for graduation or that a South Asian civilization dimension be incorporated into the freshman-sophomore Western civilization course sequence. The reason the program was not initially better integrated into the curriculum was the assumption that the unusual nature of the subject matter and the quality of the instruction would suffice. As it turned out, most students were simply too concerned with preprofessional majors, too preoccupied with taking courses that would prepare them for the graduate school admissions examinations, and too Western civilization-oriented in their backgrounds and interest to elect South Asia courses.

Another problem emerged as a result of changing financial conditions at the college. Although the college continues to be one of the most financially secure, in the early 1970s it too began to experience some financial pressure. As this occurred, the college administration undertook a study of the faculty-student ratios in the various departments and programs. Although they may have preferred to overlook the low ratio of the South Asian Studies program, given their support of international studies, this study forced them to take a more critical look at the program. From the viewpoint of faculty members who were not involved in the program, its status changed from acceptable academic window dressing to an unnecessary frill. Nonetheless, because of the considerable investment in the program, there was also sentiment for its continuation in some form. As far as is known, no decision has yet been taken regarding the future of the program.

This leads from the faculty development question to the institutional development one. The college unquestionably was highly successful in faculty development terms, creating an impressive faculty-resource capability in the field of South Asian studies. However, it was not as successful in organizational development terms; enrollments remained low in South Asia courses and the college could not find a way to insure that the faculty resources, once created, could be effectively utilized. Since the topic of institutional/organizational development is discussed elsewhere in this volume, it will not be discussed further here.

Conclusions

In any institution which appoints an individual to develop and direct a new program, the program director becomes, among other things, a "faculty development facilitator." He or she cannot establish the program without building teaching capabilities. The faculty development facilitator has many strategies from which to choose, including those already mentioned. But whatever activities are undertaken, he must be able to sit down with faculty members on a one-to-one basis in order to encourage their interest in the program, to assist them in setting aside personal disinclinations to participate, to assist in obtaining such things as departmental or other administrative permission needed to offer a course, or to assist in obtaining institutional or external funds needed to move ahead with development plans, etc. To play this multifaceted role, the facilitator would benefit from experience with as many of the following as possible: teaching, research, counseling, administration, and fund raising. In addition, it is helpful if he understands institutional politics but is not controlled by them; if he is diplomatic and supportive and yet tough-minded and aggressive. With some of these background experiences and qualities and a conducive organizational climate, his program development experience is likely to be an exciting one.

A CONSORTIUM AT WORK IN THE WORLD: THE GREAT LAKES COLLEGES ASSOCIATION IN YUGOSLAVIA

Irwin Abrams

Introduction

The Yugoslav venture of the Great Lakes Colleges Association began as an effort to bring the 12 colleges of the consortium into closer awareness of the socialist world of Eastern Europe. Faculty development was always a part of the Yugoslav program and in the last three years, it became a primary objective. A total of 73 faculty members went to Yugoslavia between 1965 and 1972 in summer seminars, representing the core of a larger effort, that succeeded in weaving together many strands of educational development and international relationships.[1]

While the record of GLCA encounters with Yugoslavia is that of an interrelated set of events, there was never a grand plan for long-term development, but rather a series of eight educational projects with a variety of associated activities. The original program was a joint student seminar organized by GLCA in cooperation with the University of Ljubljana. Honor students, selected and financially assisted by the 12 colleges and accompanied by four GLCA professors, made a study tour of Yugoslavia and then settled into a seminar site near Ljubljana with their Yugoslav counterparts to discuss comparative aspects of their two societies under the leadership of professors from both countries. The pattern of the live-in seminar, adapted from the Quaker International Student Seminars, worked from the beginning. But the discussions were one-sided. The Americans, excited and challenged by their immediate experiences in a new country, as always were very articulate; to the Yugoslavs, on the other hand, the United States was remote and stereotyped, yet they generously tried to express themselves in English. The seminar meetings became a true dialogue only when we were enabled in subsequent years to bring some of the Yugoslav participants to GLCA campuses for the spring term before the face-to-face encounter in Yugoslavia.

As happens so frequently, the crucial role was played by the external funding source -- in this case, the United States Government. Two small grants

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[1] The full story of the origin and early development of this undertaking is related in the article by Irwin Abrams, "American-Yugoslav Seminar: A Cooperative Adventure," in International, Educational and Cultural Exchange (Fall 1968), pp. 24-34. The international education structure of the Great Lakes Colleges Association is described by the same author in "Interinstitutional Cooperation in International Studies," in Liberal Education, 54 (March 1968), pp. 20-29.

from foundations helped at the beginning but it was the prospect of federal assistance that gave rise to the dream in the first place, and it was the PL-480 funds, granted both by the Department of State and the Office of Education, that sustained the program and provided for its development. The availability of travel grants for the Yugoslav students was what made possible an effective international seminar; when these were no longer available, GLCA decided to change from a bi-national student program to a one-nation faculty program. Another consideration in the shift was other than financial. While without the federal grants there would have been no program in Yugoslavia, with them, the constraints of federal policies and regulations often severely limited freedom of action. This is a fact of life with which any faculty developer, dependent upon an outside grant, must live.

Flexibility and Change

A word of advice can be sounded loud and clear for both types of seminars: be flexible. In the planning of the three faculty seminars, certain program elements functioned well and were retained throughout such as the use of comparative urbanism as an organizing theme for an interdisciplinary seminar. This topic gave the GLCA professors a familiar base from which to explore the unfamiliar. Other program elements did not work out and were dropped. For example, in the first faculty seminar in 1970, six students were appointed to assist the 18 professors with individual projects. In moving to a faculty program, we thus were trying at the same time to continue, in a more limited way, the opportunity that had meant so much to the student participants in the earlier programs. Unfortunately, the idea actually worked out for only one professor; the majority of the faculty members clearly preferred that their students be campus followers rather than substantive participants and contributors.

Also in the summer of 1970, a team of four faculty members was appointed to consult on a specific project with the city planners of Novi Sad, within the framework of the seminar, but supported partly by the Urbanistic Institute of that city. Communication between American liberal arts college faculty and Yugoslav city planners through interpreters proved to be a trying, yet exciting, experience. Moreover, the consultation happened to take place during an unexpected crisis concerning the planning of a highway, whose location threatened all future plans of the official with whom the arrangement had been negotiated, absorbing all his time and attention. Like student participation, the consultation experiment was not repeated, although one of the GLCA professors has returned twice to Yugoslavia for professional assignments along similar lines, and the GLCA has maintained good relations with city planners in that country through other programs.

In the third faculty seminar, two more promising innovations were attempted. In evaluating the first two seminars, some dissatisfaction was evident with the academic approach used by the professors in exploring the Yugoslav city. Consequently, in the third seminar, we included a city manager from a municipality in which one of the GLCA schools was situated: his role was to help the

American professors ask more realistic questions. This innovation, which had the added benefit of exposing the American academics to an American practitioner, worked extremely well and has become a model for other programs.

The other important change was to include in the third faculty seminar a small group of former faculty participants assigned to produce curriculum materials for wide use within GLCA. This indeed resulted in useful acquisitions by GLCA libraries and some significant audio-visual and other teaching materials, but funds were not available for the stateside follow-up activities that were needed to do this job adequately.

The Group and the Individual

The most common method of faculty development is to provide professors with the wherewithal for individual research. When resources are plentiful, this certainly is likely to be the most favored method for self-improvement. Supported by the Ford Foundation, the GLCA had such a program in its early years, enabling it to endow about the same number of professors with individual research grants as participated in the Yugoslavia seminar. These grants were administered with great care and skill, and the purpose of professional advancement in non-Western studies for the great majority of the grantees was clearly achieved.

Group programs for faculty development may be more difficult to manage, but the rewards for the institution can be substantial. A shared experience, especially of the intensive kind that was arranged in Yugoslavia, can have important consequences for subsequent interchange between participants. On the same campus, disciplinary barriers may be more readily surmounted, while cooperation between colleagues in the same discipline at different colleges was fostered. Within the GLCA, important groundwork for joint domestic projects in urban studies was laid in far-off Yugoslavia, a consortium having a special stake in such developments. Experience has revealed that the "alumni" of the Yugoslav seminars have been more active in the affairs of the Association than the individual Ford grantees.

In all the Yugoslav projects, while the central element was the group experience abroad, participation in the orientation and in the reunion workshop was mandatory. We do not recommend a foreign travel junket without preparation and follow-up. The occasional participant who missed the orientation session was often conspicuously unprepared and less involved in the seminar. Commitment to the program was deepened by membership in the group. The group, also facilitating learning, became a corporate body first, in the orientation weekend, and then even closer knit while together as strangers in a strange land. This commitment to both group and program made the final stateside session a crucial, culminating learning experience. These pre- and post-meetings of a group are especially needed when project participants come from a number of colleges, as in a consortium program.

While the group structure was basic to the Yugoslav projects, the

faculty seminar was designed as an interdisciplinary investigation of urban development with a group program of scheduled meetings with officials, scholars, and city planners. In addition, individuals were required to pursue a more specific inquiry into some aspect of the life of the Yugoslav city, usually closely related to his or her scholarly interests. The individual's topic was first proposed as part of the original application, formulated more clearly at the orientation session, and made definite by the beginning of the sojourn in Yugoslavia. The urban theme was interpreted very broadly; while social scientists tended to predominate, there were representatives from the natural sciences, the arts, physical education, and other fields as well. The urban theme not only effectively served to coordinate the many interests represented in the three faculty groups overseas; it also served as a significant boost to GLCA domestic programs in urban studies.

Individual projects provided the occasion for interviews, observations, discussions, and other field work that made for a more vital encounter with Yugoslav society than was possible in the group meetings alone. They also formed the basis for more comparative discussion between faculty participants, as well as the written report submitted at the final stateside session. This technique of individual field study within the framework of the traveling seminar has proved effective for individual purposes, although never without some stress and strain. There are always times when the group structure seems to the individual participant to be getting in his way. The same design has been used successfully in other international programs conducted by GLCA and Antioch College.

Impact

The set of professors' papers that are to be found in each of the GLCA libraries is tangible evidence of seminar outcomes. So are some 10 articles in professional journals as well as such materials as a slide presentation on "Yugoslavia and Its Housing" and a syllabus on "Yugoslav History through Its Cities." But these are only a part of the story.

In the spring of 1975, three years after the last seminar ended and 10 years after the first seminar, we made a modest attempt to collect information concerning the program's impact upon the professors involved, using the inevitable questionnaire. Of the 73 participating faculty, 49 responded to questions in the following areas:

1. Curriculum and Teaching Methods. The emphasis of the program, as we advised the Office of Education in our grant proposal, was on "infusing Yugoslav studies throughout the curriculum rather than attempting to make Eastern European specialists more specialized." The participants' responses to the questionnaire provide conclusive evidence that this purpose was achieved, not through the initiation of courses in Yugoslavia -- that was never the purpose -- but through the infusion of the regular couse offerings with new approaches, new materials, or an alternate model for examination. From teachers of many disciplines came word of "new perspectives," "a

totally new comparative dimension," and reports of wide use of Yugoslav examples and case studies. Infusion had some unexpected effects: a new course in a Physical Education department entitled "Comparative PE and International Sport," and a production of "Midsummer Night's Dream" staged with Yugoslav folk dances and costumes.

2. Advancement. Few had much to say about the impact of the seminar upon their job situation. The outstanding exceptions were the two participants who had moved from GLCA to become college administrators elsewhere and who both felt that their Yugoslav experience had been a significant consideration in the decision to appoint them. Others mentioned that their participation had made them more valuable in the eyes of their college. This is important evidence of how critical local campus circumstances can be in faculty development programs.

3. Professional and Personal Development. As noted above, there were a significant number of articles published and papers presented at professional meetings -- important indicators of professional development. But it is also clear that the seminars have not turned out East European specialists, but rather have internationalized the generalists, as was intended.

There were many appreciative comments as to the overall impact. A young professor recalled the experience "of more use intellectually and personally in developing a 'faculty member' -- than a year of grad school." An older professor on the verge of retirement, who had participated in both student and faculty seminars, noted "the seminars were prime experiences in my 41 years of academic life." Yet another member of the consulting team in the 1970 seminar referred to it as "a critical point in my professional activities."

On a more direct level, one student participant concerned with Yugoslav studies in his doctoral program returned to a GLCA school to teach and to assume leadership in faculty projects in Yugoslavia. Of these experiences, he related: "They have underscored my professional career and remain a set of experiences without which I could not have done the things I have." Several reported that the seminar had deepened their interest in urban studies: One returned to prepare for a new degree in urban planning, while another came home to spend four years on local planning and zoning boards. And upon invitation, four professors returned to Yugoslavia to lecture, direct plays, or perform music.

One questionnaire respondent spoke perceptively about the methodology of the seminars:

> I have struggled with the question of content and experience for a number of years. It was in the experiences with the program in Yugoslavia that I was able to find the blend in my own thinking that emphasized the necessary mix between process and content. I cherish these experiences because they were emergent reponses to the new. They provided me /with/ an opportunity to work with the unfamiliar which is so often the crucial base for growth.

4. Campus Impact. To the questionnaire was attached a statistical chart showing the involvement of each GLCA college in the eight years of the seminar which they were asked to correct for their own institution. The chart revealed that all colleges were represented within the list of the 73 faculty participants. One school was represented by only one professor, all others by at least four, while the highest numbers were 11 and 13.

As for receiving the Yugoslav students who came to the United States, the 12 colleges have between them awarded 16 scholarships, the most recent grant being for 1974-75. Travel aid was provided to some Yugoslav students by the State Department and the GLCA central office. All but one of the GLCA colleges welcomed the students to its campus as short-term visitors. The only two faculty visitors for whom we could find funds visited almost all the campuses. Unfortunately, unlike the students, at the faculty level there was never a two-way flow.

The questionnaire yielded few specifics from the respondents as to how the impact had been felt on the campuses. The real impact had been upon people, of course, and the more palpable effects were succinctly summed up by one participant: "consciousness raised, courses altered, library collection improved." An interesting finding, moreover, emerged from the replies. Respondents who referred most frequently to what other colleagues were doing generally came from the five colleges where there were at least seven professors who had been in the program. It was as though on these campuses a critical mass had been achieved. It was not surprising that the college most closely associated with the administration of the program, the so-called "agent college," was the one most involved in Yugoslav studies and even attempted to continue a summer program for students in that country on its own.

5. Maintenance of Contacts with Yugoslavia. Here, again, the evidence is positive that in the short but intensive sojourns, important seeds were sown. Of the 49 respondents, 16 have returned to Yugoslavia on visits, several more than once, and many reported professional and other correspondence with Yugoslavs; put another way, the momentum of professional development begun by the seminars has continued. In 1974, the GLCA European Term on Comparative Urban Studies included Yugoslavia on its itinerary and another three-week visit was planned for 1975.

6. GLCA. A small but significant number of respondents saw the seminars as leading them into other GLCA activities. Clearly, the seminars contributed to a more general awareness of GLCA among the faculties and produced new directions in the conduct of its affairs. The consortium, in turn, has proved an excellent instrument to further faculty development in international studies throughout the member schools. It is instructive to recall that the idea of the seminar was first suggested to the State Department as a project by one college before the GLCA was established. But it was only when that college became associated with 11 others in three states, with a total student population of almost 20,000 and a faculty numbering 1,500, that a project with such significant overall impact could be mounted.

The Change Agent

At all levels of the GLCA were those whose help was imperative to initiate and to carry out this program. On the GLCA Board, there were several staunch internationalists; among the academic deans there was one indispensable mover; at the agent college there was an experienced and able director of international education. Others like him sat on the influential International Education Committee of the Association and were well placed to implement policies in their own institutions. And within the ranks of the faculty, the project found support and leadership.

But the primary requisite, along with all the foregoing, remained the administrator who could give his full attention to the project. Such an administrator must perform as a facilitator, working cooperatively with this wide network of aiders and abettors -- urging, cajoling, persuading, pressuring gently, yet firmly and relentlessly. The change to be effected was organic, not mechanical; it had to grow, it could not be decreed.

Out of all the experiences of these years, with their successes and failures, one may perhaps venture to set down the characteristics of the "perfect change agent." The list would go somewhat as follows but not in any order of importance:

a) Should be possessed of interpersonal sensitivities and skills, aware of the dreams and abilities of others, and capable of enlisting both in the mutual effort -- through maneuverability perhaps, but never manipulation.

b) Should possess a full share of optimism and enthusiasm, altruism and vision.

c) Should be a planner, an organizer of scarcity, able to identify all available resources and to exploit them efficiently.

d) Should be flexible in carrying out any plan, ever ready to change, to compromise without violating principles, and to extemporize -- also preferring the achievable to the ideal.

e) Should possess communication skills -- the ability to write proposals, to articulate enthusiasms, to persuade, and above all, to listen.

f) Should understand how to work with bureaucracies -- governmental, educational, and the rest -- for which an eye is required for the small print, the patience of Job, and the wit to know mortals as they are.

To list these traits seems to say that the change agent is an impossible creature. Perhaps so, but no guidelines for faculty development are worth a "sou" unless the administrator who sets out to follow them has a large share of these qualifications.

It is perhaps fitting to conclude with the words penned by a weary change agent at the conclusion of the first faculty seminar in 1970:

> The director of a project like this must have a disposition for diplomacy; a tolerance of continual decision-making, big and little; a liking to tuck all the little parts of the program into their proper little places, all the while being able to bear the realization that they will never fit there; and being able to live with a world in which agreements are never what they seem and where nothing is more to be expected than the unexpected. Add to this the ability to take the tension between what has been promised to everybody and what seems to be actually coming of the program -- and to relax.

COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND INTERNATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION AT NEW PALTZ: REGIONAL COOPERATION WITHIN THE STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK SYSTEM

David W. McDowell

Introduction

Faculty development of competencies for intercultural programs is a process of identifying prior competencies (talents) and developing an institutional and procedural system to enhance those competencies. What is important to realize is that faculty development is only one component of an intercultural program and cannot be analyzed in isolation of the total program. Moreover, in the following case study involving a teacher education program, the program was a means to a much larger set of goals rather than a goal by itself. Nevertheless, in this case study, the project defined specific goals, including those for faculty development.

The intent of the International Teacher Education Program (ITEP) has been to strengthen the international and intercultural dimensions of undergraduate education, so that teachers-in-training would become less parochial and national-minded and more intercultural and global-minded in their eventual work in the classrooms of the region. This entailed introducing an international dimension into the professional training sequence which previously had been narrowly American and regional.

The goals of the ITEP project were articulated in a grant proposal to the USOE in the spring of 1972, a proposal which led to funding from the period of July 1972 to June 1974. The proposal contained several significant features:

1) Recognition that regional community colleges were involved in the early training sequence, due to the fact that about half of the junior class at SUNY came from these regional community colleges.

2) Recognition that existing courses in teacher education had virtually no international or intercultural components.

3) Recognition that the larger resources (literary, media, personnel competencies) of the region could be marshalled and strengthened through a project involving an infusion of outside funding.

Identification of the Change or Innovation

The USOE proposal specified five basic goals:

1) The development of a lower-division (freshman and sophomore) course which would introduce the study of education from a global or international perspective.

2) The internationalizing of existing courses through the purchase and development of materials on global educational practices and issues, in part through overseas study tours by faculty of the region.

3) Extension of these developments and materials to the regional colleges which increasingly transfer students, including teachers-in-training, to the College at New Paltz.

4) Development of several upper-division courses on education in specific world regions (Europe, Latin America, Africa, Middle East, and Asia).

5) Work within the advisement systems of the several colleges to encourage students to take advantage of these offerings.

There were significant modifications of certain of these objectives -- some planned, some not. A new course entitled "American Education In a Global Perspective" has been developed and now enrolls an appreciable number of undergraduate teachers-in-training. The course is now acceptable as an alternative to the traditional required course for all trainees -- itself, a major accomplishment of the project. The course makes extensive use of materials collected and generated by the project. Originally intended to be offered also at the community colleges, it readily became apparent that the colleges were not able or willing to introduce an education course where none existed before.

A second modification was a direct response to this development. It was quickly apparent that only our college, of the five schools, had extensive professional and material capacity in the global area studies. Moreover, there existed no course at New Paltz which was truly global in its coverage of issues, trends, and problems in spite of an extensive and impressive range of courses on specific global regions (particularly African and Asian studies, close to 75 such courses). What was developed, therefore, was a new course, "Contemporary Global Issues," team-taught by various area studies personnel for teachers-in-training and any other interested students. The course is now being introduced in a similar or slightly modified form at each of the regional community colleges, utilizing wherever possible the resources from all the colleges.

A third major modification was the decision not to develop upper-division level courses on education in specific areas, but to develop broader comparative and global courses on education. Two have been developed and

taught at New Paltz: "Educational Anthropology" and "Selected Educational Practices in Other Countries." Others are now in the process of development, including "Education and Culture of the Puerto Rican-American Experience;" "An Introduction to Bilingual Education;" and "Education and Imperialism." Still others are under consideration, again, to utilize the materials generated by the project.

A fourth decision was to take a leadership role in developing an entirely new program of training teachers for bilingual, bicultural (Spanish-English, Puerto Rican-American) classrooms of the region. This program begun in the fall of 1975 as the first such undergraduate program in the State University of New York system, will articulate with programs in TESL and language study at the regional community colleges.

In summary of the changes which took place, it became quickly apparent that the original specific objectives could not be attained in toto, although each of the achievements were significant contributions to the overall project goal and to the strengthening of regional institutional ties contributing to an international dimension to undergraduate education. Indeed, perhaps the greatest achievement of the project was the development of strong regional institutional relationships which can be effective instruments in the future for program, curriculum, and personnel development in international education.

The Change Agents

Soon after the project began, two advisory committees were established. The first was composed of five professors of Comparative and International Education at the College of New Paltz. This group involved the chief participants in the overseas study tours in the first year, and was mandated to oversee the development of courses at New Paltz, the collection and creation of new curriculum materials, the work with the advisement system, and greater coordination with programs at the community colleges. The second advisory committee, composed of the representatives of the community colleges, met to discuss mutual programs and course development, frequently consulting with the first committee.

A major change system was designed to provide a strong faculty development process through eight regional workshops held during the two years. At the initial meeting, the objectives, rationale, and procedures were discussed. Invitations were sent to all Education faculty members at New Paltz and all those in area and comparative studies at all the colleges. Attendance ranged from 30 to well over 100. Consultant/specialists were invited and sponsored with project funds, including eminent scholars in global studies (e.g., Dean R. Freeman Butts of Columbia University Teachers College), thus providing insights and experiences from beyond the region.

A second process in faculty development, also open to the larger community of students and others, was the institution of a lecture series, again

employing specialists of international education (e.g., Professor C.T. Hu of Columbia University on Asian education). Seven lecturers gave talks in programs open to the colleges and general public, and publicity was extended regionally through newspaper announcements. It was a practice to videotape an hour's discussion with each lecturer and several of the comparative education specialists before a college reception for the lecturer -- a general lecture following the reception.

In the second year, some latitude was given to each community college to make use of some funds as they saw fit. Two colleges used their funds specifically for faculty development through overseas travel to India and Central America. Another used the funds to prepare a brochure describing its new international community college program developed during the project period. Yet another emphasized faculty development through the establishment of an International Forum, and paid honorariums to selected faculty to prepare innovative global lectures within their respective disciplines (e.g., "The Global Monetary Crisis," "Nursing in Other Countries"). It should be cited that the bulk of the funds for the second year was to be made available for community college use, and it was the original intent that foreign study and travel would strengthen the competencies of these faculty; unfortunately, the USOE cut $9,000 from the $30,000 budget for the second year, severely limiting the program development of these community colleges.

In part as a result of the funded project, several of the colleges set in motion committees on international education for the first time. The project, in other words, was a stimulus to many campus initiatives in international education, initiatives with longterm implications beyond the project, and involving faculty development as well as other objectives.

Participation in the workshops cut across disciplines, departments, and institutions. This had both positive and limiting effects. As an interdisciplinary and institutional effort, the workshops both broadened and diffused the efforts to reach objectives. The first three workshops involved extensive theoretical discussions of assumptions, perspectives, and tactics. As a result, some original objectives were modified, and new ones added. Notable was the decision <u>not</u> to extend the education course to the community colleges, but to develop the new course, "Contemporary Global Issues," at the College at New Paltz, afterwards extending it to the colleges. The latter decision was based on the realizations: 1) that there was no truly global or multiregional course at New Paltz; 2) that teachers-in-training would benefit from such a course; and 3) that this course would be of interest to students at the community college and could, in terms of expertise, be introduced there. Accordingly, personnel for the field trips abroad were assigned the task of collecting materials, far more material with varied disciplinary relevance than originally planned and quite a positive development. It is clear that this "grass-roots" participation in the modification of the objectives during the workshops was a key element in 1) sustaining faculty interest and 2) producing faculty growth through interdisciplinary and interinstitutional discussions and decision making.

The project had the support -- either explicitly or implicitly -- of

the administrations of all the colleges with some more supportive than others. Students were encouraged to attend the workshops, although few did. Those who did, however, were extremely good contributors to the discussions, but all leadership and most influence were from the faculty.

Outside groups active in the workshops included the African-American Institute, the Asia Society, and the New York State Education Department (in several capacities). For the development of the bilingual program, consultants were brought in from New York University and La Guardia Community College for the workshops, special meetings, or curriculum development. Such outside influences were an important contribution to the project overall, and to faculty development in particular.

An Analysis of the Process of Change

The most significant influence on the success of the project was outside funding. The project took place during a critical financial period in New York State higher education. Although new courses might have been developed without such funding, the needed curriculum and resource materials could not have been collected and developed. Although some efforts at regional cooperation might have taken place without outside funding, almost none did prior to the grant period. Workshops might have been held on international education topics, but none had. And certainly the range of media and resource material from overseas could not have been collected without outside funding to facilitate the several field trips.

It is fairly evident that the success of the project was very dependent upon active, strong leadership which was centralized and aggressive. There were many differences of philosophical viewpoints expressed in the early workships, differences which represented at times challenges to the leadership of the project as formulated in the original proposal. Some individuals expressed reservations on the benefits to be derived from the new courses -- and, indeed, of world studies generally. Some felt that nonspecialists should travel overseas, to raise their level of awareness of new cultures; others that only area specialists could benefit from the relatively brief sojourns abroad. Some saw little value in media being collected overseas; others saw it as extremely useful. The workshops provided a "grass-roots" input to the leadership and decision making without diffusing the leadership. These workshops also were useful forums for forging interpersonal, interdisciplinary, and interinstitutional links which previously did not exist -- a most valuable element, contributing to the success of efforts in the postproject phase.

Next, it became apparent toward the end of the project phase that many of the objectives set and the overall goal were often more long-term than originally expected. Consequently, many of the projects such as preparation of audio-visual units (slide/cassette) on education in specific countries are still to be completed. The main point is, however, that these large collections of cassette tapes (about 100) and 35mm slides (over 4,000), produced on the several field trips overseas, are now available regionally for

organizing into units. Similarly, not all of the upper-division courses have been approved officially by the College, and the Contemporary Global Issues course is still being developed at some of the community colleges. A major remaining goal is to sustain interinstitutional linkages through discussions, joint activities, and a sharing of the resources generated by the project.

Assessment of the Impact of the Change

It is clear that certain lessons can be learned from looking at this program. First, certain original project goals should be articulated as definitely "long-term." The collection of materials in this project can be updated continuously and utilized over a long period of time. This was not envisioned as an original feature of the project proposal, but should become part of any design.

Second, a project involving interdisciplinary and interinstitutional cooperation should, on the one hand, involve strong leadership to guide the program through the shoals of challenges, divergent views, and multivariate agendas, while on the other, have a built in flexibility in the design to accomodate these various pressures. Overall, there is great value in having extensive discussions by all participants lead to modification of goals and procedures.

Third, outside funding and the attendant articulation of specific objectives are strong elements in institutional reforms, both as a stimulant and as a focus of energies.

Fourth, interinstitutional projects are complicated but useful. The complications are the result primarily of the varied levels of previous accomplishments and of beginning competencies of participants, and the need to treat each institution, or part of an institution, with an individual diplomatic and strategy approach. The strength that can be derived from diversity of approaches and strategies is of real utility, however, particularly where there are natural links (e.g., large student transfers from the community colleges to the senior college). Cooperative effort on a project can, and did, in this case, produce long-term benefits for international education at each campus.

Fifth, a multifaceted approach to internationalizing the curriculum seems quite appropriate. The statement of several objectives and strategies diffuses aspects of the project, but also, and more importantly, provides a range of opportunities. Certain objectives, such as strengthening the involvement of foreign students and working closely with the advisement system, were not fully developed; others, such as the introduction of an education course at the community colleges, were significantly modified. A range of objectives allows for unexpected events, personality factors, attrition of personnel, etc. It also gives leadership flexibility.

The project invited an outside consultant to evaluate the project. His general summary constituted amazement at what had been accomplished with so little money in so short a time, and mainly questioned whether institutional support could be sustained for this effort. Such support, financially, has not been forthcoming, and funds to continue to develop 35mm slide and tape modules on various themes or topics for regional use have been unavailable. This has meant a significant slowdown of the pace of the project. But the resources that have been collected are being utilized regionally in a number of ways. The project phase has stimulated a number of efforts throughout the region, at regional cooperative efforts, and at individual colleges. Momentum has been built up, and the challenge is to sustain it on a broadened basis in the future, where specific objectives and special funding do not guide the efforts.

There is little doubt that many faculty throughout the five colleges of the region have gained significantly from this five-college project. Many, particularly at the community colleges, are now, for the first time actively involved in teaching courses with specific international and intercultural perspectives and examples. Organizational changes at the colleges (e.g., a new requirement in non-Western studies for students at one community college) have taken place in the last two years to sustain this involvement of faculty, and interinstitutional links have been forged to stimulate continued sharing of ideas and materials. All of this faculty development, therefore, along with the organizational changes and instructional development, seem to contribute to a more international and intercultural dimension to undergraduate teaching. With this, and the multiplying factor involved in teacher education, it is assumed that such broadened perspectives will eventually reach to the classrooms and larger community of the region.

SUMMARY: SUCCESSFUL CONTRIBUTING FACTORS

Ann I. Schneider

In its final hours of deliberation about strategies and conditions for effective faculty development at the postsecondary level, the working group articulated a series of questions which program organizers should keep in mind as they formulate and carry out their plans. As mentioned earlier in this section, we were unable to keep separate the consideration of more general organizational development and our assigned topic of faculty development. The case studies have shown some specific instances of the interrelationships; the series of questions presented in this section, while in two categories, must also be read as interrelated.

Assessment of the Viability of the International Studies Program

1. The Program Itself:

   Is it compatible with the institution's academic goals?

   Will the institution respect the goals of the international studies program?

   Will the institution be sufficiently committed to it?

   Are there indications of student and faculty interest in it?

   Do its promotors have sufficient influence in the institution?

   Will the program include influential people (in both faculty and administration)?

2. Material Resources:

   Does the institution have a sufficient base of library resources?

   Are outside funding resources available?

3. Human Resources:

   What are existing faculty competencies?

   How prestigious is the program director?

Will the international studies program be able to reach (or does it already have) a "critical mass" of faculty expertise?

What other human resources are available to the international studies program: a) on campus? b) in the community? c) nationally? d) internationally?

What change agents may be enlisted by the international studies program?

Assessment of Faculty Development Needs for the International Studies Program

1. Leadership:

   How may the academic prestige of the program director be enhanced?

   How will the international studies program's development be institutionalized? (Who will "own" the program?)

   How will influential faculty and administration be included?

2. Faculty Recruitment or "Retooling":

   How are the goals for faculty development articulated?

   What are the bases for acquiring faculty for the program?

   Who should be chosen for faculty development activities?

   How may the momentum of faculty interest be maintained?

   What faculty development activities are feasible?

   How can the academic prestige of the program be developed?

   Do faculty development efforts require changes in discipline orientation?

3. Reward Systems:

   What faculty needs are being met by the program?

   How will the international studies program insure professional rewards?

   How will the program provide maximum impact for the expenditures?

4. Evaluation:

Are the faculty involved (as a form of faculty development)?

Does the evaluation plan ensure continued flexibility for reaching the goals of the program?

Is the evaluation used to reformulate strategies?

Obviously the answers to these questions need not all be resoundingly positive for a program to achieve some success. However, it is also obvious that a considerable number of answers should be positive for the prognosis to be favorable. As the case studies indicated, the formulation of a viable faculty development effort is very much a trial-and-error matter, wholly dependent on individual institutional situations. No general prescriptions can be made; the working group on this topic has tried simply to provide interested readers with as many ideas as possible -- the rest is up to the prospective change agent.

All of us in the working group would be happy to try to answer questions about our contributions if further clarifications would be helpful. In addition, the program directors for the NDEA-funded graduate and undergraduate international studies programs should be able to provide information about their experiences.[1]

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[1]Lists of the NDEA-funded programs are available on request to the Division of International Education, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

III. INSTRUCTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

Herbert H. Wood

Educational change in two- and four-year colleges may soon become a way of life to those institutions alert to the changing needs of their students. Where once international studies focused upon the issues of world politics, a much broader understanding is now needed of the cultural patterns of other peoples. While pacts and alliances may shift, intercultural relationships have come to be a central concern in the instructional program. Many now feel that a college's course of studies needs to provide its students with an understanding of such relationships.

For this purpose, a review and upgrading of ongoing programs of instruction is no modest undertaking. Delicate balances of power among contending departments of instruction, slow-moving committee processes, and recently even statewide approval requirements, must be dealt with. There is, however, an assumption that in spite of such difficulties, plans that are well conceived and carefully implemented can provide successful change.

Actually, educational change involves an interrelated effort that at once includes the development of organizational structure, the preparation of faculty and their continuing development, and what is the particular focus of this section, the development of the instructional program. Instructional development as treated here involves the design of the student's learning experiences, and the evaluation of what students learn from them.

This section, therefore, presents guidelines for the development of instructional projects that will assist those working in two- and four-year colleges to implement intercultural studies.

The guidelines reflect the lessons of successful experiences (and failures as well) of a variety of colleges in developing intercultural studies. Encompassed in this analysis will be a variety of processes. It begins, perhaps, with an assessment of what the student needs to know or should be able to do. The designing of the courses, the orientation of students, and how interdisciplinary relationships are assigned are all part of it. Experimental learning designs need to be considered. Whether used in the classroom, on the campus, in the community, or abroad, instructional methodology is an

important consideration. Materials designed to fit the instructional approach are important and attention must be given to inventory techniques for currently available materials and media.

Attention should also be given to the transfer of newly acquired research and knowledge to the teaching program. In the past, this has been a very slow process.

Finally, the process should give attention to the use of seminars both on and off campus, workshops and conferences designed to strengthen an understanding of what students need to know, as well as successful methods used in facilitating their learning.

Intercultural studies, as the focus of concern in this section, refers to all learning programs -- single, cross- and interdisciplinary -- which involve the impact of culture upon the acquisition, transmission, and utilization of knowledge. Audiences to whom these guidelines are directed include administrators of programs and institutions, classroom instructors, foundations and funding agency staff, program developers and designers, those who prepare instructional materials, and program evaluators. Each may find assistance in shaping and directing their respective efforts to effect educational change, thereby improving intercultural understanding.

Persons responsible or having a direct part in such implementation should be able to:

1) Recognize the importance of having clearly stated educational objectives for a given instructional project.

2) Establish those components of the project necessary for meeting the stated objectives.

3) Identify and capitalize upon appropriate resources, including human, financial, and material.

4) Respond to the interdisciplinary foundation of intercultural studies.

5) Anticipate problem areas associated with project planning and management, particularly those related to institutional commitment.

6) Incorporate an evaluation system.

Finally, several case studies have been included as examples.

It is perhaps too much to expect that a complete survival kit can be provided for this kind of project development. A variety of institutional and administrative styles are involved. Indeed, adapting to local situations will be an essential step for each and every user. Yet, it was felt that there are commonalities which justify a set of guidelines.

In passing along the experiences of others, it might be said that a certain amount of re-inventing of the wheel can be avoided. Yet, each project leader is still very much on his own in creating the "wheels" that will carry his own particular project. Someone else's project and its unique environment will never quite match his or her needs. Indeed, copying another project without an inventive, adaptive process to local needs is risky at best.

Therefore, guidelines serve best as an identification of important landmarks discovered among common experiences of others which can lead the new project leader to most advantageous ways of skirting the inevitable obstacles to a successful implementation. It is all too well known in academic circles that the failure to get through such barriers, and the subsequent retracing of one's steps, presents an almost impossible setting for an immediate second start. Program disasters require a waiting period until the memories of one's colleagues have been outlived.

For this reason, strong and effective new projects in instructional development which have drawn upon and benefited from the experience of other projects is the purpose of this section.

Clearly Stated Objectives

The familiar advice to those with responsibility for a project in instructional development is to have clearly stated objectives. This is often taken for granted and yet, not so often observed.

It is tempting not to show one's hand and discuss precisely what changes are being sought. Opponents can be kept guessing, and in case full achievement is not attained, the degree of shortcomings will not have been disclosed.

What is overlooked, however, is that a number of staff members, not to mention students, will be involved in significant change. Without a clear statement of what is being done, colleagues can neither help nor adjust to the changes contemplated.

In working out a clarification statement, a number of considerations must be dealt with. Each will be subject to modification and adjustment as the project unfolds:

1) The type of educational experience that is to be sought. Is it a student-oriented study, or a faculty- or community-oriented seminar; degree-granting or enrichment; course-oriented or a lecture series?

2) The type of issues to be considered. Will they be discipline-oriented, or multidisciplinary in character; area-oriented (Asia, Latin America, etc.), or issue-oriented? Will they be designed to explore new horizons, or rather to synthesize existing experiences?

3) At what level will the program be offered?

4) If successful, what kind of institutional change is involved: a new degree, a new department, a set of new courses, new units for existing courses, or will a new independent institute, a new academic empire, be established? As plans become firm, a design for boundaries regarding content as well as departmental or institutional jurisdiction must be clarified.

A clarification of these points forces the planner to look ahead in specific ways. Others who must relate to the project will also be aided in doing so.

With the objectives agreed upon, some determination can then be made regarding the adequacy and appropriateness of resources, the essential components of the project, the extent of interdisciplinary participation, and what is to be evaluated.

The suggestion, then, to state the project's objectives clearly is not ritualistic. The task of framing such a clarification statement is always difficult but, when completed, will represent a significant step toward successfully establishing the project and interpreting it to others.

PROJECT COMPONENTS FOR ATTAINING INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION OBJECTIVES

B. Thomas Trout

Once a specific set of objectives has been determined, it is important to ennumerate, as clearly and completely as possible, the components necessary to meet those objectives. In an intercultural studies project, the necessary components can generally be placed in the categories of either organization and administration or educational strategies. Care must be taken, however, to maintain the components as means and not ends. Each component must be explicitly addressed, in advance, in terms of expected instructional outcomes. The planner thus has a dual responsibility: to recognize the full range of requirements for the project and at the same time to recognize and avoid the tendency to create structure without function or strategy without purpose. More simply, let the means suit the ends.

Organization/Administration

Any successful intercultural studies project will need an "infrastructure" appropriate to its objectives. Infrastructure refers to the scope and character of organizational or institutional resources -- i.e., space, staff, and time. These must fully account for all that is expected from the project. Concern for institutional resources is particularly vital to intercultural projects because they tend usually to cross conventional administrative boundaries and to rely on cooperative efforts. The organizational configuration of a project will then be determined by the educational level sought by the administrative units involved, and by the potential instructional resources to be used. The experience of the case studies suggests the range of project organization. These extend from a single coordinator, as in the Educational Materials Project (EMPathy), through a project committee, such as the faculty committee in the Program on Technology and Social Change (PTSC) or the more dispersed and disparate committee used by InterFuture, to an institutionalized structure of committees in a representative framework, as in the Consortium for International Studies Education (CISE). The fundamental distinction among these cases is whether the requisite educational resources were contained primarily within an existing institutional format such as a university, or whether an extra-institutional format was needed.

1. Institutional Formats. Where educational objectives are course-specific, the organizational requirements tend to originate and be confined within institutions. The lowest feasible unit in this case is usually the department, although intercultural studies tend more often to be interdepartmental,

intercollege, or even intercampus within a university system. The experience of PTSC illustrates an interdepartmental and intercollege program (which is also used as a vehicle for contacts outside the university).

2. Extra-institutional Formats. When the scope of intercultural objectives transcends the individual course or campus, either in a topical or geographical sense, more extensive administrative measures are required. Such measures are more challenging. They include interuniversity programs, consortia, and associations with or without direct institutional support. The last two are illustrated by CISE and InterFuture respectively (although it should be emphasized that lack of institutional support, as with InterFuture, does not exclude institutional endorsement). Each such format involves the creation of new communication, administrative, and organizational networks.

An exact format is less important, however, than the assurance that some appropriate organizational structure precedes inauguration of the project. Some projects in some settings may work best with a hierarchical and formal organization, others with informal cooperative direction. Further, regardless of format and structure, the point is to give full consideration to the relationship between administration and project objectives. Perhaps the most common oversight in the planning stage of a project is underestimation of administrative costs, particularly in time, necessary to realize and, more important, to sustain it. What appears in the initial enthusiasm to be "out-of-pocket" time and expense can, if viewed realistically, be seen as a part-time or full-time responsibility. Yet, it is only through appropriate administration that the later tasks of measuring resources against goals, maintaining personal and institutional commitments, and managing evaluation systems can be accomplished. And only proper organizational/administrative foresight can avoid the potential shortfalls of an intercultural studies project inadequately supported.

Educational Strategy

The range of possible educational strategies for instructional development of intercultural studies is, of course, extensive. The selection of one or another strategy is, again, determined by the objectives to be served. It will be useful here only to list some of the alternatives based on setting and medium. The list is neither exhaustive nor mutually exclusive. Any number of variations, combinations, or innovations are possible. A selected bibliography of further sources is also included.

1. Setting:

   a) Classroom:

      1) Lecture (lecture-discussion)

      2) Seminar

3) Research projects

4) Contract-learning (student responsibilities negotiated individually with the instructor)

5) Small-group learning (student presentation, panel discussion, role-playing, etc.)

b) Campus:

1) International student exchanges

2) Major/minor programs

3) Public lecture (series)

4) Symposia

5) Foreign scholars

6) Conferences

7) Study abroad

c) Community:

1) International visitors (foreign-born, embassy/consulate, international business interests, international organizations, etc.)

2) Continuing education programs

3) Practicums

4) Travel abroad

2. Media:

a) Audio-visual materials

b) Modular learning

c) Experiential learning

3. Selected Readings on Higher Education:

a) Classroom (Teaching-Learning Process):

Curwin, R. and B. Fuhrmann, Discovering Your Teaching Self: Humanistic Approaches to Teaching, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1975.

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Lee, Calvin B. (ed.), Improving College Teaching, Washington, DC: American Council on Education, 1967.

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McGaghie, William, A Selected Bibliography on College Teaching, (Occasional Paper No. 3), Evanston, IL: The Center for the Teaching Professions, Northwestern University, September 1973.

McKeachie, Wilbert J., Teaching Tips: A Guidebook for the Beginning College Teacher, Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath & Co., 1969.

Postman, Neil and Charles Weingartner, Teaching as a Subversive Activity, New York: Delacorte Press, 1969.

Rogers, Carl R., Freedom to Learn, Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1969.

Schmuck, Richard and Patricia Schmuck, Group Processes in the Classroom, Dubuque, IA: William C. Brown, 1971.

Thelen, Herbert A., Classroom Grouping for Teachability, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967.

b) Educational Theory and Philosophy:

Feldman, Kenneth A. and Theodore M. NewComb, The Impact of College on Students - Vols. I and II, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1969.

Jones, Richard M., Fantasy and Feeling in Education, New York: New York University Press, 1968.

Katz, Joseph and Associates, No Time for Youth: Growth and Constraint in College Students, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1968.

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Sanford, Nevitt, Where Colleges Fail: A Study of the Student as a Person, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1967.

Stephens, J.M., The Process of Schooling: A Psychological Examination, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967.

c) General:

Boocock, Sarane S. and E.O. Schild (eds.), Simulation Games in Learning, Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications, Inc., 1968.

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Briggs, L.K., Handbook of Procedures for the Design of Instruction, Pittsburgh: American Institute for Research, 1970.

Cohen, Arthur M., Objectives for College Courses, Beverly Hills, CA: Glencoe Press (a division of the MacMillan Co.), 1970.

Dubin, Robert and Thomas C. Taveggia, The Teaching-Learning Paradox (Monograph), Eugene, OR: Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 1968.

Runkel, P., R. Harrison, and M. Runkel, The Changing College Classroom, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1967.

Sikes, W., L. Schesinger, and C. Seashore, Renewing Higher Education from Within, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1974.

Tansey, P.J. and Derick Unwin, Simulation and Gaming in Education, London: Methuen Educational Ltd., 1969.

Travers, Robert (ed.), Second Handbook of Research on Teaching, Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Co.

IDENTIFICATION AND CAPITALIZATION OF RESOURCES FOR INTERCULTURAL STUDIES

Abdel Aziz Fouad

A variety of organizations, programs, networks, and individuals exist which can help an intercultural program developer shape and fortify his innovation. A canvass of all likely resources is indispensible in the early stages of planning, for purposes of both conceptualization and program survival.

Rationale

1. Conceptualization. The findings, experiences, products, outlooks, and priorities of persons whose range of interests intersect with the planner's objectives can provide the planner with a "map" of the area in which he intends to operate. He will be able to see what has been accomplished, what should be avoided, and what directions will benefit the larger communities of which he is a part. Through letter-writing and personal visitation, new opportunities will open; the planner will have to expect to amplify, narrow, and successively modify his original plans as he discovers others' achievements, blunders, and ambitions. He will discover not only how his innovation "fits" into the larger landscape, but also how it might be designed to "break through" to new territory in intercultural studies techniques.

It is amazing how many people re-invent not the wheel but the very spokes and hub. Here is one example. When an energetic U.S. academic decides his school should field an undergraduate study program to Turkey, for example, it is not at all unusual for him to assume leadership (although we know local nationals can generally be found who will do a better job and lessen the overtones of educational imperialism); for it to be crammed into three weeks (when fuller planning could have made it a semester or longer); for students to be rushed into the program a month before departure (when we know that successful programs require at least a semester's preparation); for the program to reestablish abroad another American classroom setting (instead of using such techniques as family stays and field projects which provide more cultural contact); for a whirlwind itinerary to be programmed -- "If it's Tuesday, it must be Ismir" (when remaining in a single foreign community provides greater opportunity for depth-exposure to a culture); and for the students to return, culture-shocked, to an American campus completely indifferent to his exotic experiences (when they could be integrated into his degree program, shared with classes, clubs, and community organizations, and used to help build at-home support for international studies). All these pitfalls

could have been avoided by a preliminary check of resources.

2. Survival. A program designer who intends to carry his creation into operation must build a system of alliances. A number of persons will be opposed or latently opposed to one's operationalized idea, no matter how "good" it seems. Some will be hostile because they are misinformed about the nature of the innovation; some because they fear it will draw on resources needed for their own cherished programs; some because they do not feel consulted and therefore become resentful; and some because they dislike one or more of the program planners (possibly without the planners' even being aware of the animosity).

By touching base with as many relevant power/information centers as possible, one can dispel some misconceptions, generate a feeling of participation, reassure those who feel threatened, and prevent or deflect hostile countermeasures. This means that a canvass of resources is less an extractive than a transactive process. It will pay off if the planner knows how to listen for implied criticism, recognize alternatives, reshape his holy vision into a faith many can share, and communicate to each of his fellow planners the concerns and reactions of exterior interests -- so that they may join forces to transform as many of these interests as possible from neutral or ominous forces into supportive constituencies.

Consider a not-too-hypothetical example. A college administrator and two professors formulate an exciting program, sell it to their colleagues and HEW, receive a grant, and adjust their lives and those of their colleagues and students accordingly; yet next year the new program collapses when neither HEW nor the college administration will replenish the funds. Had the planners been aware from the outset that this is frequently the fate of programs which rely on one or two major funders: that there exist additional sources upon which they could have possibly drawn for funds; that eggs need not have been placed in two baskets but, rather, a number of small funding sources could have been put together; and that several programs have developed strategies for using volunteers, community networks, and gifts-in-kind -- it is possible the innovation might have lasted. These survival lessons might have been learned if the program designers or planners had devoted a portion of their initial energies to an inventory of persons and structures such as those represented below.

Resources

1. World Scholarly and Academic Communities. To discover what has been or is being studied, said, or done by scholars and educational institutions, the following resources should be consulted, within the field relevant to the proposed innovation.

a) Specialists and Their Works. There are two types, possibly overlapping, of researchers or teachers whose contributions to the planner's education can be valuable -- the subject matter specialist (e.g., in

peace studies, population, technology, hunger, etc.) and the cultural-area specialist (e.g., in Ghanaian studies). One can begin uncovering their works with the help of publication indices, beginning with the Bibliographic Index, "a cumulative bibliography of bibliographies," and progressing as needed to more specialized indices such as UNESCO's Documentation in the Social Sciences or the Biological and Agricultural Index. After one has some grounding in the literature, it can prove highly useful to seek out some of these specialists to discuss with them the intended program.

Personal conversation and correspondence with specialists can help the planners identify informal networks of specialists, who may be threaded through associations, institutes, centers, corporations, and governments. Specialists who are citizens of the countries to be studied are, strangely, sometimes overlooked. To discover whether some might be in the United States, the planner can consult the current Directory of Visiting Lecturers and Research Scholars, published by the Council for International Exchange of Scholars, 2101 Constitution Avenue NW, Washington DC 20418.

b) Institutes, Centers, and Their Activities. These entities are often the gathering places where practicing specialists are employed, congregate, and publish, and where apprentice specialists are trained. Some are located within university structures (e.g., Centre for Urban Studies of the University of London); others, such as the Institute for Community Studies also in London, are not. The planner can seek out the relevant entities which are subject matter-related (e.g., Institute for World Order, New York, in peace studies; the Van Lier Foundation, Hague, in early childhood education, etc.), and those which focus on a cultural area (e.g., Institute of African Studies, Legon; the Research Institute for the Study of Man, New York, in Caribbean studies, etc.). Some overlap such as the Center for Developing Societies in New Delhi which examines problems of development in particular societies, especially India.

The quickest way for a planner to assemble a list of relevant centers is to ask a specialist or two. If none handy, leads may be available through the national headquarters of a related professional association.

c) Professional Associations and Their Programs. Associations of scholars, academics, or educational administrators tend to be disciplinary, multidisciplinary, or "functional" (in the sense of uniting those engaged in a particular administrative function). A U.S. disciplinary association may have committees or affiliated bodies at work in fields germane to the innovator's purposes (e.g., the American Psychological Association's project on international relations, the American Society of International Law's study and research panel on the law of the seas, etc.). Within the United States are regional disciplinary groupings, for example, the Midwest Political Science Association, and organizations

that focus on specific countries such as the Conference Group on German Politics.

Multidisciplinary societies can be tapped. Some of these exist to promote the examination of a particular issue or interrelated trends (Club of Rome, technology and resources; Association for World Education; Association for Innovation in Higher Education, etc.); some focus on a world region such as the Caribbean Studies Association; and some devoted to a single country such as the Turkish Studies Association. The crossroads for many such bodies is the International Studies Association, G-7 Mervis Hall, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA 15260, with its web of "internets" on such topics as urban studies, divided nations, and minorities; and the Social Science Research Council, 605 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10022, with its program of grants.

Among university and college administrators, functional groupings exist such as international associations of presidents, rectors, and vice-chancellors. These may be identified with the help of the Overseas Liaison Committee, American Council on Education, 1 Dupont Circle NW, Washington DC 20036, and the Institute of International Education's International Councils on Higher Education, 809 UN Plaza, New York, NY 10017. U.S. directors of off-campus study programs communicate through the Society for Field Experience Education, Justin Merrill College, Snyder Hall, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI 48824; and directors of overseas study programs are organized (together with campus advisors to foreign students) in the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1860 19th St. NW, Washington, DC 20009. NAFSA publishes an annual Directory and has also produced a Sourcebook for advisors of U.S. students planning an overseas experience.

For an overview of associations of all kinds, the planner can consult The Encyclopaedia of Associations, as well as the Yearbook of International Associations. For further advice, he might contact the American Council of Learned Societies, 345 E. 46th St., New York, NY 10017, and "Nexus," a people-bank maintained by the American Association for Higher Education, 1 Dupont Circle NW, Washington DC 20036.

d) Private Intercultural Organizations. These are of the profitmaking and nonprofit varieties. Nonprofit research-and-action groups exist in many fields; examples in the world affairs area include the Population Council, World Education, American Friends of the Middle East, African-American Institute, etc. When the thrust of one's innovation has been determined, these organizations can be identified through inquiries among the relevant specialists. In addition, several can be mentioned which are especially interested in influencing school curricula in international studies, and which produce materials that can be used in classrooms.

Two groups related to the Society of Friends -- The American Friends Service Committee, 15 Rutherford Place, and the Center for Global Perspectives, 218 E. 18th St., both New York, NY 10003 -- and the Roman Catholic-related Center of Concern, 3700 13th St. NE, Washington, DC 20017, circulate materials on peace studies and hunger education. The Institute for World Order, mentioned above (1140 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10036), helps universities develop a "world order" approach to international studies. Inter-Culture Associates, P.O. Box 277, Thompson, CT 06277, markets books, recordings, and artifacts. The Management Institute for National Development, 230 Park Avenue, New York, NY 10017, has produced a curriculum plan, Global Development Studies. The Society for International Development, 1346 Connecticut Avenue NW, Washington DC 20036, distributes a guide to international development films entitled, Films of a Changing World.

2. Sponsoring Institution(s) and/or Organization(s). An innovator must decide whether his project is to be carried out under the auspices of an existing incorporated body, several in concert, or its own independent board of trustees (if nonprofit) or board of directors (if profitmaking). Even if an independent course is chosen, informal, de facto support from established institutions can help legitimize and maintain the new structure. In the potentially sponsoring or assisting body or bodies, the planner must assess the possible helpfulness of persons, networks, interinstitutional arrangements, and budgets.

a) Well-disposed Individuals. Policymakers -- trustees, presidents, chancellors, financial and academic vice-presidents, deans, program directors, and department chairmen -- must be cultivated for their suggestions and good will. Relevant specialists and nonspecialists within such institutions can help create access to key scholarly and professional committees. "Creative deviants," who may be outside the networks of power-brokers and professionals, should be sought out for their special contributions. Foreign-born administrators, professors, and students are often especially interested in helping implement programs of intercultural innovation. North Americans with ethnic ties to a given country or region can be helpful; even if they have had no particular experience with intercultural programming, their contribution might be in the area of administrative and community support. Finally, the immediate supervisors of the planners must be curried to ensure that the latter are not regarded as deficient in allegiance to their employers in diverting energies to a new interest.

b) Networks. Within most institutions are academic and associational groupings, whose leaders can be consulted for advice and support. These groupings include standing committees on academic affairs, international studies, independent study, etc.; informal and formal networks of women, blacks, ecologists, or other categories whose interests might coincide with those of the planners. Academic senates, student councils, campus clubs, and alumni associations could be asked for inputs and financial support.

c) Interinstitutional Arrangements. The planner should discover whether the potential sponsoring institution is related to others which might provide joint or ancillary support for the project. A school founded by Methodists, for example, may have ties with other Methodist schools. Many institutions are now part of a general-purpose consortium such as The Five Colleges (Amherst, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Mount Holyoke, Smith), or one devoted to educational innovation (Union for Experimenting Colleges and Universities), or one focusing on international studies (American Universities Field Staff, or Indiana Consortium for International Education). If a convenient or hospitable consortium does not present itself, one can be created, formally or informally.[1]

d) Budgets. Some of the individuals and groupings of the sort mentioned above have access to budgets which might, perhaps, be tapped. Administrators -- especially presidents -- may have (or know where to find) discretionary funds; student and alumni organizations are able to raise money; and there could be ways of dressing up a particular innovation to make it qualify for faculty development funds or even regular program support. The secret is to embed chunks of the project in different parts of existing budgets, if a fresh appropriation for the planner's purposes is not feasible.

3. The Community. Locally and nationally, "the community" is a realm many academics ignore when planning educational programs. It can be, however, a valuable source of information and funds; one can even argue that it is one of the logical places to begin when developing programs of intercultural study.

Ethnic groups and their organizations are often interested in promoting awareness of their heritage, and their members may maintain contacts with useful persons in the "old country." In addition, every city has its internationally concious individuals, who may be found in such organizations as the World Affairs Council, Foreign Policy Association, and International Visitors Service; in local chapters of Rotary International, the Experiment in International Living, American Field Service, the English-Speaking Union, and Partners of the Americas; and among veterans of overseas experience in the U.S. Foreign Service, Peace Corps, International Executive Service Corps, Experiment, AFS, International Association for the Exchange of Students for Technical Experience, and so on.

Companies, unions, professionals, government officials, wealthy individuals, and locally oriented foundations can be approached, if the subject matter of the program coincides with their interests -- for example: developments in international business; experiments abroad in worker participation in management; or professional advances elsewhere (e.g., in teaching, environmental protection, social work). The likelihood of community input and

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[1]InterFuture took the informal route, organizing as an independent nonprofit corporation and then inviting a broad range of schools to nominate student participants. Presidents or chancellors of three of these schools now sit on the IF board of trustees -- but as individuals, rather than official representatives of their schools.

support wil. be increased if a) the project is designed with the help of community leaders, and b) the innovation offers public relations opportunities and visibility to the prospective community supporters. (This can take the form of prominent display of the names of a firm or organization, and personal contact between community leaders and program participants.)

4. Corporations. U.S. multinational firms have public information offices which are generally ready to supply information illustrating the positive impact of their overseas activities. The oil companies, for example, produce films giving their views on world issues like food and energy. Company future-planners and forecasters can be met and observed through the activities of the World Future Society, P.O. Box 30369, Bethesda Branch, Washington DC 20014, and its local chapters.

At the national headquarters of most U.S. firms there exists a "contributions committee" or special fund for aiding worthy causes. Often, a branch manager in a local community will have additional funds for local charities and public relations. Worthiness is achieved primarily by making a friend of the manager or at least one member of the contributions committee. Also, one must represent one's project as coinciding with the business emphases and public relations needs of the firm. Although munitions makers are not yet strong supporters of peace studies programs, it might be possible -- with proper introductions -- to interest, say, a food company in international nutrition studies, or an oil firm in international environmental studies.

5. Foundations. There are thousands of these in the United States, and the most well known are the least likely to be receptive to a new program that originates outside their circle of officers and friends. For descriptions of the middle-sized and some of the smaller foundations, one may consult the Foundation Directory. If convenient, the planner can research the interests and leading personalities of foundations at the Foundation Center, which has offices in New York and San Francisco.

Most foundations are in the habit of routinely answering initial inquiries and proposals in the negative, which suggests one's principal strategy must be to discover how to meet one or more key officers of the targeted funds despite their polite refusal. Personal introduction through mutual friends is the logical course and may require a gentleman's knowledge of golf or squash.

6. Agencies of National Governments. Departments and ministries, as well as the legislative and judicial branches, publish reams of reports, hearings, decisions, and other materials that might prove helpful to the planner. For the U.S. Government, one can consult the annual index to the Monthly Catalogue of United States Government Publications. A useful U.S. Department of Defense series is its Area Handbooks, one of which is published on each country with which the United States has diplomatic relations. The Department of State annually produces a Directory of Contacts for International Educational, Cultural and Scientific Exchange Programs, which describes public and private

agencies in the field and lists their principal staff members. To keep up with U.S. Government granting agencies and their funding opportunities for new programs -- such as they are -- the innovator should subscribe to International Interaction, published by the American Council on Education, 1 Dupont Circle, Washington DC 20036.

Foreign governments can be approached initially through consulates and embassies, whose officers are often happy to be involved in the implementation of educational programs involving their countries. There is no substitute, of course, for a personal "arrangements mission" to the countries with which one wishes to cooperate -- prepared in advance by letters of introduction from mutually respected scholars and officials.

7. Intergovernmental Agencies. The planner will need to review the activities of any specialized bodies -- such as the Food and Agriculture Organization, International Labour Organisation, etc. -- which deal multinationally with issues that touch on the concerns of the proposed program. The closest UN depository library will be a necessary resource for the planner. In the UN Secretariat in New York, a knowledgeable person on international education matters is Ms. Sally Swing Shelley, Chief, Educational Information Programs, Office of Public Information, United Nations, Room 1045B, New York, NY 10017. Bibliographies of all UN publications can be secured from UNIPUB, P.O. Box 433, New York, NY 10016.

Follow-up

The first contact with some of the types of resources mentioned above may be sufficient to exploit their usefulness. The value of many of these resources, however, does not fully appear until the innovator has developed a relationship with the organizations and persons involved. No sooner are some agencies inventoried than they produce new material, change leadership or direction, disappear, reincarnate, or merge with another body. In the eyes of an existing organization, most innovations are a bit suspect until the older organizations become accustomed to them. Nor is it until a rapport develops between the leaders of the new project and those of older entities that the older practitioners begin to confide in the newcomers and include them in profitable arrangements.

All this argues for making the cultivation of resources not simply a part of the planning phase, but a continuing administrative function within the new program. It boils down to a phrase academics abhor -- "public relations." To work well, it should function in two directions: keeping the outside world informed of the progress of the innovation, and keeping the innovators aware of new developments on the outside. At the minimum, this can take the form of a regular exchange of newsletters, but this must be supplemented by continuing personal diplomany through which the planners regularly visit with a wide range of instructive and potentially supportive individuals.

These scouting activities carry several inescapable liabilities. First,

they cost money -- in postage, stationery, travel, and entertainment. Second, they absorb administrative time which might be desperately needed to make a "go" of the project. Third, they tempt the planners to spend time endlessly modifying the innovation as new intelligence is gathered. Fourth, the process of diplomatic data-gathering makes the planner assigned to this function an inside-advocate of the views, objectives, and interests of exterior parties; this places the planner-diplomat on an awkward footing with his fellow planners, who may come to regard him as inconstant and traitorous. Ultimately, therefore, the planner-diplomat's maintenance of his innovation, together with his position within it, depends on his skill in assimilating new ideas and transmitting the best ones to his supporters, discreetly but convincingly.

THE INTERDISCIPLINARY FOUNDATION OF INTERCULTURAL STUDIES

Paul Conner

Elaboration

Intercultural studies frequently require a multidisciplinary view. Whether it is to represent a comparative view of an issue, to offer a broadening of our perception of the world around us, or to emphasize the culture-boundedness of various bodies of knowledge available to us, it is very likely that the study requires a multidisciplinary or an interdisciplinary approach.

While in some cases, it is evident to the planner which disciplines should be brought to bear on the issue at hand; in others, it is not readily recognizable (until the issue is dealt with in some depth). It is important, therefore, to identify as early as possible a) the interdisciplinary nature of the activity to be undertaken, and b) the disciplines to be involved in a substantial way. The significance of recognizing the above is that:

1) The major disciplines involved should be allowed to participate in the planning stage.

2) Interdisciplinary efforts are much more complex to plan and implement than disciplinary activities.

3) Significant amounts of administrative effort will be involved and should be provided for.

4) Numerous problem areas should be anticipated and incorporated in the thinking of the planners which are different from problems ordinarily encountered in activities conducted within one discipline, including those of:

   a) Developing a multidisciplinary view which is a difficult task -- more than a collection of contributions from faculties of different disciplines.

   b) Substantial expense.

   c) Diversity in perceptions, standards, and methodology should be expected from people of different disciplines, requiring much flexibility (and patience) in the planning.

   d) Working out arrangements for released time of faculty participation.

e) Arranging for faculty rewards, evaluation, etc., within each college.

f) Establishing a frame of reference for the activity.

g) Making the activities known to students, informing advisors, etc.

Analysis of Case Studies

1. Recognizing the Interdisciplinary Aspects. In each of the following intercultural projects used as case studies, the interdisciplinary nature of the activity is clearly demonstrated:

InterFuture: this project-oriented program requires that studies include, in addition to the discipline(s) related to the technical aspects of the problem, two cultures (the United States plus that of the foreign country); thus, the problem or the issue is studied in its cultural context and constraints.

Technology and Social Change: every course, seminar, or conference has had contributions from the social sciences, technological disciplines, and the humanities. Great effort was devoted to maintaining the interdisciplinary nature.

CISE Learning Development Packages: the overall effort is multidisciplinary, but individual activities are disciplinary (or done by one or two individuals from the same discipline).

2. Added Complexity.

InterFuture: a rather complex setup of campus coordinators, overseas coordinators, program scholars, advisors, host families, alumni, and associates (about 250 people); the issues dealt with are diverse and broad.

Technology and Social Change: educational activities involving faculty and students from disciplines from all colleges; issues discussed require a variety of expertise: complex planning and operation involved.

CISE Learning Development Packages: a network of specialists from the social sciences and administrators are involved in the project; this, plus the multiple-funding sources, are obvious added complexity.

3. Provision for Added Administration and Coordination. All projects appear to have provided for such burdens. However, the broader the scope of the program the greater the effort required for coordination and administration. This is apparent in the InterFuture project, and more so in the Technology and Social Change in Foreign Cultures program. The experience with the Technology and Social

Change program shows that administering a broad-scoped effort can tax the time (and the capacity) of a part-time administrator.

4. Responding to the Above. It is difficult to lay out rules by which, if followed, an intercultural educational activity would be launched smoothly. Yet, it is reasonable to assume that recognition of certain potential problems and mismatches can save much agony and wasted effort.

If we can foresee that an intercultural study will require a multidisciplinary view, or an interdisciplinary approach, then it is very desirable to have all the needed expertise represented in the planning and development stages. Not only will the elements of the study be represented, but also many of the potential problems will appear early (and presumably dealt with). Further, commitments from staff, departments, and administrators could be sought and arranged for, and problem spots identified.

The nature of the Technology and Social Change program is such that an interdisciplinary committee has been in charge from the beginning. The interaction between the members helped the program to quickly identify many problems; it avoided some and survived others. Some other problems were not foreseen and came up in the implementation stage. How much of this could have been avoided, and how much would have influenced the planning (had they been recognized) is hard to say.

The InterFuture program was originated by a language specialist and a politics professor. As the scope of their undertaking required much broader participation, they established an initial planning group that included an art historian, a psychologist, and a philosopher. In time, this group was supplanted by an academic staff representing political science, environmental studies, sociology, and history. These four disciplines have had, therefore, a major role in shaping the study projects undertaken by InterFuture Scholars.

5. Summary or Generalization. Whether the intent of a program is to offer an interdisciplinary examination of an issue, or simply to develop an intercultural educational experience, a multidimensional view is often needed. In the environment of an educational institution, this is usually provided through a cooperative undertaking by individuals or groups from various disciplines.

Since this is an "unnatural" function in a discipline-oriented environment, the added complexity should be anticipated and planned for. The experience of the case studies analyzed here support this view, and seem to offer suggestions as to how this matter can be handled.

Some Inherent Problem Areas

Embarking on an intercultural project carries one beyond conventional administrative boundaries, be they departmental, disciplinary, or institutional in nature. It is in the strangeness of this environment that problem areas in project planning and management have their roots. The ground is strange

not only to the project leadership but also to those with whom such leadership must relate. One can anticipate, in addition to the ordinary garden variety of interpersonal and institutional problems, a host of other, more complex problems associated with the special nature of the enterprise. They are complex primarily because they involve individuals and activities in more than one administrative jurisdiction and because, in lacking such a uniting force, their solutions require more difficult procedures. It is no modest enterprise which challenges familiar patterns of supervision and traditional categories of subject matter all at the same time.

Problems will certainly emerge as planning, preparation, and implementation occur. Leadership can expect to have no difficulty in sensing them. The crucial test, however, is whether the problems can be seen sufficiently in advance so that they can be dealt with while they are still manageable. Even better would be the possibility of precautionary measures to avoid as many of them as possible. Suggestions made in other parts of this section have this approach in mind.

Areas likely to produce problems can be examined in greater detail as an aid to their early identification. They could be classified as areas related to:

1. Procedures and Processes:

   a) Early involvement is essential for those faculty and staff who will recruit participants or who will advise on programmatic aspects. A failing here lets loose a host of problems.

      Institutional commitment remains as words rather than deeds and students who might have been served never hear about the project. Without an enthusiasm generated through direct involvement, individuals are reluctant to do the necessary work to carry the project to fruition. The group process is a slow method of getting a project underway and keeping it running, but unless each person sees his role as interesting and important to the enterprise, not much will happen and the project could remain isolated from ongoing educational operations.

   b) A flexibility must be built into any enterprise that breaks new ground. Adapting and repairing project operations as they get underway is always necessary. This requires a delegation of decision making to assure a prompt response and a proper orientation of participants to the fact that changes might be needed. Finally, an adequate feedback system is necessary to inform leadership sooner, rather than later, that things are not running well

   c) Anticipating the need for follow-up activities, once the major project effort is underway, means more than just evaluation. Things are often set in motion that make possible the realization of additional benefits, objectives, and projects if they can be identified in time.

d) Periodic evaluation rather than one-shot, "after it is all over" effort permits self-correction at mid-course, not only for leadership but for all who are involved. Dissatisfaction with a project on the part of participants can be just as real when interim opportunities are neglected as when the original objectives are unattained or are still unclear.

e) A project that appears to be fly-by-night or predatory will have problems related to image. Not only should evidence of long-term value and breadth of support be acquired, but it should be made apparent to all. Otherwise, participants will be hesitant to make any commitments and supporting agencies will exhibit caution.

f) An interdisciplinary program does more than collect the disciplines. Instructor interactions and a reorientation of long-established ways may be required. Glossing over this difficult spade-work will consign a project to ever-increasing difficulties in being taken seriously be others.

g) Success need not be expressed solely in terms of growth or those other vestiges that often accompany academic imperialism. While such is tempting, the measures of success should remain in terms of the stated objectives. As an interdisciplinary effort, the seeking of traditional disciplinary trappings will tend to set up resistance and competition among those whose support is most needed. Prestige must be found in other ways.

h) The means by which institutional commitment is obtained will vary with the nature of the project. Yet, it will be through the college that the project will reach the student and clear statement of such a commitment is essential. Obligations in writing are important but will not alone suffice. These must be shored up with interested persons who will actually participate and carry out their responsibilities. There must also be evidence that the project is serving the best interests of the college concerned. Each year, as institutional budgets are reviewed and manpower is assigned, the question of participation and commitment rests upon whether the institution is getting enough out of the project to justify what it is putting into it. Commitment more soundly rests upon recognized advantages than on promises.

i) The use of part-time or volunteer staff, while often essential to getting a project off the ground, is also the source of problems. With personal careers more likely tied to a regular job assignment, the part-time project task can appear as a distraction. Thus, part-time or volunteer staff who might express eagerness to press forward one day may not be around when they are needed on the next. Staffing with persons who have a direct stake in the project's success places matters on much firmer ground when the going gets difficult.

j) Where resources and functions are divided up or remain fragmented among a number of individuals, there is great value in preparing extremely clear-cut procedures and in seeking intelligent and dedicated leadership. Otherwise, waiting for the other party to act becomes an often-used excuse and will be the most common response to any uncertain circumstance. Many projects, otherwise well conceived, founder on this particular weakness.

2. Intercultural Aspects:

a) For projects with activities abroad, the most noticeable defect is the failure to mesh with the local culture. This can result from inadequate orientation. It can also stem from the failure to gain the timely involvement of the representatives of the host culture in planning the details of the project. While often difficult where distances are involved, the participation of such representatives appears to be the most underutilized resource in project planning. Resulting problems would be an accentuation of cultural shock among participants, a slower beginning due to last-minute changes, and an even more serious consequence such as early termination by the host.

b) Ethnocentrism is what intercultural projects seek to change. Yet, it stands as a serious barrier to the success of a program. Indeed, participants abroad may retain the feeling that they have never left home. Much effort is required to gain self-awareness on the part of each participant and a sensitivity for the culture of others. Failure to do so leaves matters worse than before for participants and hosts alike. More than just wasting time and effort, a residue of imperialistic tones may remain.

c) An integrating focus can be built upon the planned activities of each project. Experience suggests that a focal purpose, mission, or set of tasks may well be essential to a successful project. It may be language study, an historical period interest, a family home stay, or a problem approach. In each case, however, such a focus ties together the day-to-day activities, suggests additional needs for information, and leaves both visitor and host with tangible evidence that something worthwhile has taken place. Where such a focus is lacking, such as with unstructured sightseeing, activites might more appropriately be evaluated as recreational rather than as educational in nature. A hesitation to structure inquiry into another culture appears more frequently than one might expect. It would appear that travel abroad is thought of as something quite different from other activities related to serious inquiry and to effective use of time and energy.

3. Budgetary Aspects:

a) From the birth of the idea for a project until its final activity, an intercultural instruction project will tend to exceed cost

expectations, particularly if it is viewed in accordance with traditional cost measurements. The reason for this is that extra time is generally needed to bring disciplines together, to seek out and negotiate with foreign hosts for services needed, to arrange foreign travel, to recruit participants and to deliberate among a variety of administrative jurisdictions on the best plan for implementation. There is also a temptation to keep cost estimates under expected levels to get necessary approvals and acceptances, since a foreign "sojourn" is not often looked upon as an essential instructional effort by some business office staff. A practical approach has been to apportion various of the costs among existing budget-line items and job assignments. This, itself, requires time and skill and should be considered a part of the investment to be made in the project.

b) Costs will tend to be out of line with on-campus study. If placed entirely upon the student, the additional costs could make recruitment of students most difficult. Successful budgeting requires a judicious balancing of the attractive learning experiences provided with the student-fee differential.

c) Dependence on outside funding, particularly if it is from a single source and is provided through a nonrenewable grant, may seem to be a reasonable risk for getting things started. However, unless other support is found at once, potential donors and institutional supporters will come to view the project as terminal in nature. In so doing, their expectations will more than likely come to pass.

d) Institutions have long accepted the fact that some subject fields, especially those with laboratories, have a higher unit cost for instruction than others. A similar case must be prepared for intercultural studies, since on many campuses, such acceptance has not yet been gained.

e) The cost of gaining consensus, which is needed for interinstitutional or interdisciplinary project planning, should not be underestimated. While this can often be funded from existing budgets, commitments, and interest must be sustained in order for it all to come to pass.

All that has been said suggests that an undertaking of the sort required for an intercultural studies project is both difficult and hazardous. Perhaps much the same can be said for other new undertakings as well. Anticipating and then dealing with such problems as have been identified at the earliest stage of their emergence is obviously advantageous. If the experience presented in the case studies and in many of the successful intercultural studies projects have one important story to tell, it is that despite the problems encountered, such projects have been both worthwhile and rewarding. Indeed, as the saying goes, part of the fun is in getting there.

INCORPORATING AN EVALUATION SYSTEM: AN ESSENTIAL

Sheryl Reichman

There are many ways to go about evaluating an intercultural program. A bibliography is appended which suggests useful sources of information on a number of approaches.

It is not the intention to recommend one particular evaluation process, but rather to encourage the creation of some evaluation system as part of the design of a program/project/course. Determining procedures at the outset for collecting and using feedback about the project serves several purposes. These include:

1) Legitimization of spending time on evaluation activities.

2) Creation of pressure to state objectives in such a way that attainment of them can be measured.

3) Clarification amongst those involved in the program about what the intended program outcomes are.

4) Facilitation of identifying people who can provide or collect evaluation data.

5) Gaining support of funding agencies or other groups "responsible" for the program.

6) Utilization of positive "start-up" energy for a task that is often put off and overlooked until the last minute.

7) Facilitation of an understanding that program design/evaluation/program redesign is a cyclical process.

8) Facilitation of wisely allocating resources.

To help with the problem-solving and decision-making process involved in designing an evaluation system, a number of questions can be addressed. Answers to these questions can be critical in determining the scope, timing, and form of the evaluation. These questions are each introduced and briefly discussed below.

Why Is Evaluation Information Needed?

The first and immediate response is that it is needed for revitalization and improvement of the program. There are, of course, other answers. For example, grant foundations may require evaluations, as was the case with the Technology and Social Change in Foreign Cultures project, or evaluation information may serve as a quality control device, as in the case of the learning packages for the Consortium for International Studies Education (CISE) program.

Answers to the question make a difference in terms of what evaluation methods and magnitude are appropriate. If evaluation information is needed only for internal guidance of the program, then perhaps informal methods of data collection will suffice. If evaluation data are needed to justify the existence of the project or to meet external guidelines, then a more sophisticated evaluation system is likely to be in order.

Who Is to Receive the Evaluation Data or Report?

This can be directly related to the question above in the sense that someone (individuals in the university or funding agency) may require that an evaluation report be provided to them. However, answers to this question have broader implications. For example, there is the question of confidentiality. Who is to see the evaluations may determine the style in which a report is written and what gets included. It may even mean that certain potentially useful information is not collected or can only be collected in a modified form (e.g., without names attached).

Another consideration here is the potentially political aspects of evaluations. For example, are particular kinds of information likely to have greater impact on certain receivers? Are these people who would find the evaluation report useful or who could help the program if they received evaluation information on the project? Again, answers to these questions will determine scope of the evaluation, format for reports, and magnitude of reproduction of evaluation products (all of which affect resource allocation for the whole project).

What Is to Be Evaluated?

The bulk of the answer to this question should come directly from the goals, objectives and/or expected outcomes of the project. However, there are aspects of programs which are often overlooked in the formation of goals, objectives, and expected outcomes, as well as in the design of an evaluation system.

A distinction that is helpful to consider before looking at some answers to this question is one between process and products. We usually think of measuring products (e.g., number of students enrolled in the program, number of courses offered) and not of looking at the effectiveness of the processes for developing those products (e.g., teaching effectiveness, range of people

involved in making decisions, and procedures for deciding what courses will be offered). Asking questions about outcomes and methods for producing those outcomes (which can be expected outcomes in themselves, if process or organizational management goals are written as part of the program) can provide clues about how to make program improvements as well as about what to change or keep doing.

When one considers both procedures and products of a program, the kinds of things which can be evaluated include the following:

1) Person's performance within the project (e.g., initiators or receivers).

2) Impact of project on client, immediate and over time (e.g., personal, professional, attitudes and/or behavior).

3) Impact of project on community of client or project (e.g., persons, policies, physical environment).

4) Appropriateness to goals and objectives of procedures used for designing and implementing the project (e.g., communication patterns and techniques; decision-making procedures; involvement by "appropriate" people; sharing of power, authority, and responsibility).

5) Success of revisions in project or ability of those in the project to make changes on the basis of data about the project or circumstances surrounding the project.

As mentioned earlier, the answer to the question of what is to be evaluated lies in having clear, behavioral objectives. (The term behavioral is used simply to stress that the objectives should be stated in ways so their achievement can be measured.) It may help to think of having internal and external objectives. Internal objectives can deal with how the program will be run and how people in the project will be treated. External objectives can be those which focus more on what the program is to accomplish, or what "products" (e.g., trained students, learning packages) will be produced.

What Methods of Evaluation Are to Be Used?

There is no single answer to this question. Again, one must refer back to project goals and objectives, as well as consider carefully the best ways for collecting information about those things which have been designated as important to evaluate. Some points to consider will be given here and the texts in the bibliography will be particularly helpful since principles for doing evaluations and case studies are given.

Some of the methods of evaluation are tied to decisons concerning when evaluation data will be collected. Two such approaches are formative vs summative evaluation, and longitudinal vs cross-sectional vs "one-shot"

approaches. (See Anderson, Bull, Murphy et al., 1975, for a more complete description than that given below.)

The kind of evaluation where data are collected for making project improvements and where the evaluation is part of an ongoing project, is often referred to as formative evaluation. Another kind, often called summative evaluation, is where evaluation information is collected to make some decisions about the overall effectiveness or survival of the project. Many experimental programs will have a two or three year start-up period before the campus (e.g., academic affairs committee of the faculty senate), or a granting agency, asks for a "terminal" or summative evaluation. Collecting formative or less formal evaluation data can help prepare people and the program for these larger evaluation efforts.

A longitudinal approach to evaluation data means that data are collected periodically on the same people or aspects of the program over a long period of time. Because of the time involved in this approach, samples are often relatively small. In the case of an international studies program, one-third or one-quarter of the students might be randomly selected when they enter the program. Every semester or at frequent intervals during their enrollment in the program, they could be questioned in depth about their perceptions of the program, their progress toward accreditation, their learning, changes in their values as a result of the program, etc.

Another approach is cross-sectional research. It is a compromise, of sorts, between longitudinal and "one-shot" models of evaluation. Here, rather than keep track of people as they go through the program, people during each year or at some steps of the program are sampled. Changes (or lack of them) over time are then extrapolated by comparison of data from people at the different steps. Individual student growth through the program cannot be assessed by this approach.

If a "one-shot" approach is used, data are simply collected once on the people or projects of most concern. Less can be told about a project by this approach. However, because fewer resources are involved in a "one-shot" evaluation, this procedure is often used.

Regardless of whether the evaluation is to be formative or summative, "one-shot," cross-sectional, or longitudinal, there are a number of procedures for collecting information. The ones that first come to mind are surveys, interviews, and tests. These approaches are all susceptible to distortions by the respondees.

Three general types of measures, referred to as unobtrusive measures, are less susceptible to these influences. These are physical traces, archives, and observations. Physical trace indicators include such things as amount of paper used and traffic patterns worn in a floor or amount of mud tracked into a particular office. Archives or records may be important sources of data both by what kinds of information are recorded (or omitted) and in terms of particular entries into records (e.g., requests for changes in courses in the program, number of requests for program information). Observation, the third

form of unobtrusive measure, involves watching what people do and how they react to particular events. This can provide additional and comparative data to what people say they do or feel.

In short, there are a number of models for doing evaluations and a variety of ways for collecting data. Selection of the appropriate approach will be affected by a number of factors, including the amount of time and resources available for doing the evaluation. Answering the remaining questions may also help determine what methods are adopted.

What/Who Are Sources of Information about the Success of the Project?

Seeing a project in its context can help localize a greater range of possible sources of data. Unobtrusive measures, as mentioned above, are frequently overlooked sources of data. Others include people not directly involved in the program, but who serve related functions. Persons who could provide information include experts in the field, families in foreign countries with whom students stay, student academic counselors, and teachers in whose courses students are enrolled outside the program.

Who Collects the Data?

Answers to this question may depend directly on an examination of available resources (e.g., people's time and training, paper, computer time), as well as on who has access to appropriate data. A major decision to make is whether persons from inside or outside of the program will do the evaluation. Often, this is not an all-or-none choice. For example, within one year in the Technology and Social Change in Foreign Cultures Program, evaluations were done by program personnel, a professor from outside the program but from the same campus, a professor from another university, and a person from the same community but not a member of the university.

What Is the Evaluation Time-line?

Again, the answer to this may depend on available resources. How much time can be committed and how often can you afford to collect evaluation information?

The answer will further depend on the evaluation model you choose (e.g., "one-shot" vs longitudinal), and possibly on the components of the project. Perhaps each of several stages requires evaluation.

Regardless of the actual time-line agreed upon, it is important to set dates and assign responsibilities as soon as possible. Some information can only be collected at certain times. Having everyone aware of their part in

the evaluation can help guarantee that critical information will not be lost.

In conclusion, it can be said that clearly stated goals and objectives play a critical role in the design of an evaluation system. There are several questions about evaluations which, when answered, can also provide useful information for creating evaluation procedures. Designing an evaluation scheme as part of the design of the program is an essential step.

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FOREIGN AREA MATERIALS CENTER

Established in December, 1963 by the New York State Education Department, the Foreign Area Materials Center develops materials in the social sciences and humanities useful in teaching about foreign areas and world problems, mainly at the undergraduate level. It operates under the auspices of the Council for Intercultural Studies and Programs and the New York State Education Department's Center for International Programs and Comparative Studies.

The FAMC issues a monthly bulletin during the academic year, *Intercultural Studies Information Service* (*ISIS*), and the *Occasional Publications Series*, as well as a variety of bibliographies, study materials, and conference reports. Complete lists of these materials are available upon request from: Learning Resources in International Studies, Suite 1231, 60 East 42nd Street, New York, NY 10017.

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No. 21 The China Council of the Asia Society, compilers, *People's Republic of China: Press Briefing Materials. (Second Edition)*. 1976. $2.00

No. 22 Marvin Williamsen and Cynthia T. Morehouse, editors, *International/Intercultural Education in the Four-Year College: A Handbook on Strategies for Change*. 1977. $3.00

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The Consortium for International Studies Education

The Consortium for International Studies Education was established in 1972 by the Education Commission of the International Studies Association. The broad purpose of the Consortium is to improve the quality of international studies education in the United States at a variety of educational levels through the operation of an institutional network for developing, testing, and disseminating innovative materials in the field.

The Foreign Area Materials Center

The Foreign Area Materials Center develops materials useful in teaching about foreign areas and world problems, mainly at the undergraduate level. It operates under the auspices of the Council for Intercultural Studies and Programs and the New York State Education Department's Center for International Programs and Comparative Studies.

The Maxwell School of Syracuse University

The Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, Syracuse University, specializes in educational and research programs in public policy problems. The International Relations series is sponsored by the International Relations Program under the editorship of William D. Coplin. The series on Policy Sciences is sponsored by the Public Affairs Program under the editorship of Michael K. O'Leary. Both programs are part of the interdisciplinary social science efforts of the Maxwell School.